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THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

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Some Aspects of Pay Stabilization

ISMAR BARUCH

IN December, 1942, the National War Labor Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue made a significant change in the economic stabilization regulations affecting the control of salary and wages paid to state and local government employees. Prior to that time, the National War Labor Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue had taken jurisdiction over state and local pay levels, except when fixed by state statute.¹ The National War Labor Board was to have jurisdiction over (a) wages, i.e., daily or hourly rates; and (b) salaries, i.e., weekly, monthly, or annual rates, up to and including \$5,000 per annum, except those of employees engaged in a "bona fide executive, administrative, or professional capacity," as defined in regulations under the Fair Labor Standards Act, and not represented by a duly recognized or certified labor organization. The Commissioner of Internal Revenue was to have jurisdiction over all other salary payments.

In order to make adjustments in the general level of their pay scales, states, cities, counties and other local governments were required to submit certificates, with supporting data, stating that such adjustments were "necessary to correct maladjustments, or to correct inequalities or gross inequities."

¹ Authority for this jurisdiction was an Act of Congress approved October 2, 1942; an Executive Order (No. 9250) promulgated by the President on the following day; and regulations issued by the Economic Stabilization Director on October 27, 1942, designed to stabilize pay levels throughout the country.

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ties," in accordance with a Statement of Wage Policy issued by the National War Labor Board on November 6, 1942. Prior approval of the Board or the Commissioner was required, however, of adjustments which would raise public salaries or wages beyond the prevailing level of compensation for similar services in the area or community.²

Under this procedure, a large number of certificates of wage or salary adjustments were filed. In examining these the National War Labor Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue found no occasion for questioning the pay changes that had been authorized by local administrative or legislative agencies. This experience, although short, indicated that "statutory budgetary controls are operating to keep salary and wage movements of state and local agencies within very narrow bounds." Accordingly, the requirement for filing certificates was revoked.³

This action followed closely a resolution by the Board on December 15, 1942, and its decision on December 24, 1942, in the New York, Newark, and Omaha cases.⁴ These

² National War Labor Board, General Order No. 12, November 12, 1942.

³ Joint Statement of the National War Labor Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, dated December 26, 1942, and incorporated in General Order No. 12-A, adopted January 6, 1943. See Civil Service Assembly News Letter, January, 1943, p. 1; and *Public Management*, January, 1943, p. 16.

⁴ The Board of Transportation of the City of New York and the Transport Workers Union, CIO, were the parties to the New York dispute; the Municipal Government of the City of Newark and the State, County, and Municipal Workers of America, CIO, were the parties to the Newark dispute; and the Metropolitan Utilities

were to the effect that the Board does not have jurisdiction to issue directive orders or regulations in wage or other labor disputes where the employer is a public jurisdiction, unless perchance in a given case local governmental processes should so seriously break down, to the detriment of the war effort, as to require the exercise by the President of his war powers as Commander in Chief of the Army and the Navy.⁵

From the joint statement of the National War Labor Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, the significance of this action may thus be summarized:

1. State and local governments are now finally responsible for conforming to national stabilization policy in making adjustments in the wages and salaries of their employees.

2. Broadly defined, this responsibility is two-fold: (a) to see that all adjustments in general pay levels are founded on the necessity "to correct maladjustments, inequalities, or gross inequities," as contemplated by the national program, and that they do not raise public salaries or wages above prevailing rates for similar services in the area or community; and (b) when this is not the case, to take the matter up with the Joint Committee on Salaries and Wages, which will advise whether or not the particular adjustments are in accordance with national stabilization policy.

It is apparent from the foregoing, then, that conformity with national salary and wage stabilization policies raises several points of significance in administering or revising pay plans in public jurisdictions.

District of Omaha and the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees, AFL, were the parties to the Omaha dispute.

⁵ See "The Federal Attempt to Control Municipal Salaries and Wages" (including address by F. Murray Benson, City Solicitor, Baltimore, and news articles from the *Baltimore Sun*), *Congressional Record*, December 16, 1942, p. A4712; Charles S. Rhine, "Public Employees Have No Right to Strike," *The American City*, January 1943, pp. 89-91; *National Municipal Review*, January 1943, pp. 4-5, 32; Civil Service Assembly News Letter, December, 1942, p. 2; Wayne L. Morse, "Responsibilities of the States," *Journal of State and Local Government Employees*, February, 1943, pp. 3-4.

INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENTS WITHIN ESTABLISHED PAY SCHEDULES

THE stabilization program is concerned primarily with control over the general levels of pay scales. The stabilization regulations applicable to private industry specifically provide that approval is not required of increases made in accordance with the terms of salary or wage agreements or rate schedules and as a result of: (a) individual promotions or reclassifications; (b) individual merit increases within established rate ranges; (c) operation of an established plan of salary increases based on length of service; (d) increased productivity under incentive plans; or (e) operation of a trainee system.⁶ If existing or adjusted pay schedules are in conformity with stabilization policies, the customary variety of pay changes involved in personnel transactions may be effected in the usual way. Higher pay rates may be established for positions or employees in promotions, in reclassifications of positions, in "upgrading" as the result of training or apprenticeship programs, and in rewarding efficiency or length of service, in accordance with the regular rules of the jurisdiction's personnel system and pay plan.

Further, the national stabilization policy does not prevent raising the pay scale for an individual class of positions in the jurisdiction's position-classification plan in order to bring it into proper relation with the established pay scales of other classes. Such adjustments to remove internal inequalities within the salary and wage structure of a state or city government are, of course, relatively small in total effect. They are not general wage or salary rate increases toward the control of which the stabilization program is directed.⁷

⁶ Regulations of Economic Stabilization Director, sec. 4001.6; National War Labor Board General Order No. 9, sec. (c); Regulations of Commissioner of Internal Revenue, sec. 1002.14.

⁷ There is evidence on the record of the existence of inequalities within the wage-rate structures of the companies in this case. The experience of the Board has been that such internal inequalities, if they are of marked

In these respects, there is a clear advantage in having in operation a regularly constituted position-classification plan and a pay plan based upon it. When this is the case, there can be no question of the purpose or the propriety, under the salary and wage stabilization program, of individual salary or wage increases of the types mentioned.

GENERAL ADJUSTMENTS OF PAY SCHEDULES

STABILIZATION of the system of pay schedules included in a pay plan necessarily refers to the maintenance of the general level of these schedules as it existed at some prior date or period. Section 1 of the Act of October 2, 1942, provides that wages and salaries are to be stabilized, so far as practicable, as of September 15, 1942. Executive Order No. 9250 directs that

.... The National War Labor Board shall not approve any increase in the wage rates prevailing on September 15, 1942, unless such increase is necessary to correct maladjustments or inequalities, to eliminate substandards of living, to correct gross inequities, or to aid in the effective prosecution of the war.⁸

Thus, pay stabilization does not mean pay "freezing." Increases necessary to eliminate substandards of living, such as wage adjustments in industry in compliance with the Fair Labor Standards Act or with the levels set by state minimum wage boards, are in accord with national stabilization policy. Also, increases may be granted to "aid in the effective prosecution of the war," but this point is considered by the National War Labor Board only where the War Manpower

degree, are likely to have a more adverse effect upon employee morale and productive efficiency than inequalities which may exist between plants. Such intra-plant inequalities may properly be eliminated under the national stabilization program and steps toward such elimination should be undertaken promptly in this case." Decision of National War Labor Board, February 8, 1943, in the "Big Four" meatpackers cases, involving Swift & Company; Armour & Company; Cudahy & Company; Wilson & Company; and the Packinghouse Workers Organizing Committee, CIO; the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America, AFL; and the International Brotherhood of Swift Employees.

⁸ The scope of authority of the National War Labor Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue in implementing the national wage stabilization policy are somewhat changed by the recent Executive Order of the President, issued on April 8, 1943. (*Editor's Note.*)

Commission and other government agencies have taken concerted action to solve a manpower need and their program requires the correction of inequalities or gross inequities. It is not used as a device to prevent or control the flow of manpower.⁹

Further, increases in pay levels do not run counter to national stabilization policy if they are necessary to correct inequalities, gross inequities, or maladjustments. With respect to inequalities and gross inequities, the Board's statement of policy, November 6, 1942, declares:

The wage rate inequalities and gross inequities which may require adjustment under the stabilization program are those which represent manifest injustices that arise from unusual and unreasonable differences in wage rates.

In commenting on this, the Chairman of the Board has recently said: "In other words, just a mere inequality is not enough to get an adjustment. It must be unreasonable, unusual, and a manifest injustice."¹⁰ Thus, "gross inequalities" would include unusual, unreasonable, and manifestly unjust differences between public pay levels and those prevailing in private industry for the same or comparable work in the local area on September 15, 1942, or some other significant date. Such differences may be a proper justification for upward readjustments.

It is significant that the National War Labor Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, in their general order vesting pay stabilization responsibilities in local jurisdictions, have given explicit prior approval only to those public pay adjustments which "would not raise salaries or wages above the prevailing level of compensation for similar services in the area or community." The pay stabilization program thus currently emphasizes the value of prevailing rate surveys. They are as useful as ever in

⁹ Staley Manufacturing Company Case (No. WA-12); Thirteen Metal Mining Companies Cases (No. 218, etc.).

¹⁰ Hearings before the Subcommittee of the Committee on Appropriations, House of Representatives, 78th Cong., 1st sess., on the First Deficiency Appropriation Bill for 1943, p.663, February 16, 1943.

providing data to guide the revision of a public pay plan.¹¹

MALADJUSTMENTS IN COMPARISON WITH COST-OF-LIVING CHANGES

THE Wage Stabilization Policy approved by the National War Labor Board, November 6, 1942, speaks of certain "maladjustments" that can be corrected without affecting the stability of pay levels. The maladjustments referred to are those which developed out of irregularity of wage rate increases since January 1, 1941, between different plants and industries.

For several years prior to January 1, 1941, as shown by national indexes, wages and costs of living (prices) fluctuated only within narrow limits. The relationship was approximately stable. This condition changed rapidly, beginning early in 1941. Increases in costs of living led to upward wage adjustments, but there were wide disparities between industries, plants, and groups of workers. Some secured adjustments which not only maintained the former purchasing power of their pay, but also permitted them to advance their living standards. Others failed to secure a sufficient increase to maintain their previously established standards. Some did not secure any increase.

By the middle of 1942, the race between pay levels and the cost of living gave rise to a question as to whether there should be an unlimited series of wage increases to keep pace with advances in the cost of living, or whether there should be general maintenance of existing scales, without a solid "freeze" that would perpetuate the inequities growing out of this race between wages and prices.

THE "LITTLE STEEL" FORMULA

IN July, 1942, as the result of the decision of the National War Labor Board in the "Little Steel" Case, a terminal point was established for general wage rate increases

¹¹ Principles and techniques of such surveys are discussed in the author's "Surveying Prevailing Salary Rates," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1942, pp. 86-99.

designed to correct maladjustments in comparison with increases in the cost of living. This terminal point was the point at which basic wage or salary rates reached a level 15 per cent above their January 1, 1941, level. The Board applies this formula by taking the January 1, 1941, average straight time hourly earnings figure, and adding to that figure whatever general wage increases were granted to all employees or whatever adjustments were made in the pay schedules themselves, after January 1, 1941.

Individual raises due to job reclassifications, promotions, meritorious performance, or length of service are not included in this computation.¹² Nor is additional income due to overtime so included. As the Economic Stabilization Director stated over the radio, February 9, 1943: "Paying more for the same work makes for inflation. Paying more for extra work does not."

In the Little Steel case the 15 per cent figure was fixed as a "stabilization factor to remove the inequity suffered by the employees, due to the deficiency in the change of their hourly wage rates as compared to the increase in the cost of living between January 1, 1941, and May 1, 1942."¹³ It was recognized that the cost of living would spiral upward uncontrollably if there were a constant increase of wage rates at the same pace as increases in prices. The objective was to check this spiral by stopping the pursuit of prices by wages.

Although at the time this is written the

¹² *Chrysler Corporation Case* (No. 240), October 2, 1942; *National Malleable and Steel Castings Company Case* (No. 488), January 7, 1943; *New York Herald Tribune Case*, February 26, 1943.

¹³ *Directive Orders and Opinions of the National War Labor Board in the "Little Steel" Case*, July 16, 1942, Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1942; William H. Davis, Chairman, National War Labor Board, statement in *Hearings before the Committee on Banking and Currency, United States Senate, 77th Cong., 2d sess., on S. J. Res. 161*, September 15 and 16, 1942, pp. 89 et seq; *ibid.*, "Keeping Our Manpower at Work," in *Dealing With the War Labor Board*, Personnel Series No. 62, American Management Association, 1942, pp. 7-9. See also "Operating under Wage and Salary Stabilization," *Personnel*, January 1943, pp. 622-23, and Z. Clark Dickinson, "Wage Adjustments in This War," *The Annals*, November, 1942, p. 64.

Little Steel formula is a subject of controversy because of the rise in living costs since it was established, it is an integral part of national pay stabilization policy. In a nationwide radio address, February 9, 1943, the Economic Stabilization Director said: "There must be no further increases in wages beyond the Little Steel formula except in limited and special cases to correct patently gross inequities and to rectify plainly substandard wages."

The Little Steel formula is not a fixed rule that is applied to the exclusion of all other considerations. There are exceptions. In one case where the employees concerned had received less than 15 per cent increase since January 1, 1941, the National War Labor Board declined to approve any further increase because the employer was already paying rates materially above comparable industry and area levels. To have applied the Little Steel formula strictly would have called for increases ranging from 3.1 to 6.8 cents an hour. The members of the mediation panel stated, however, that they could not make "any recommendation which would either create an unequal relationship where one does not now exist, or intensify an existing inequality."¹⁴ In another situation, where the increase in the cost of living index in the area would have supported a pay increase of 13 per cent for the entire group of employees concerned, awards ranging from 10 to 17.4 per cent were granted in order to reestablish dollar differentials among different classes within the group which had been upset by previous labor agreements, and thus remove recently created inequalities.¹⁵

In the "Big Four" meat packing companies case, Vice Chairman George W. Taylor, who wrote the majority opinion,

¹⁴ Lever Brothers Company Cases (Nos. 149 and 176), September 2, 1942.

¹⁵ *Realty Advisory Board on Labor Relations Case* (No. 141), July 29, 1942. See also Ralph T. Seward, Associate Public Member, National War Labor Board, "WLB Views on Wage Stabilization," in *Wage Stabilization and Adjustment*, Personnel Series No. 61, American Management Association, 1942, pp. 6-7.

explained that the Board has permitted increases in some cases to eliminate inequalities within a company's rate structure, and has frequently allowed general increases in excess of 15 per cent for employees in the low-pay groups because the burden of the rising cost-of-living fell heavier on them. Thus, the "Little Steel" formula was not rigid and did not bring wage freezing, but permitted correction of manifest injustices.¹⁶

IN SOME labor agreements, provision is made for automatic pay increases based on the index of the cost of living.¹⁷ Parallel plans have been in effect in a few public jurisdictions, such as St. Paul, Fordson School District (Dearborn), Columbus, and San Diego. There have been several recent studies of the bases upon which such plans could be soundly constructed.¹⁸ It is interesting to observe, accordingly, that to the extent that the operation of such plans may be inflationary, they are not in accord with national pay stabilization policy. The National War Labor Board has expressly disapproved the operation of "escalator clauses" in labor agreements (providing for an adjustment of wage rates in consonance with increases in the cost of living) to the extent that they would result in rates in excess of 15 per cent above the average straight time hourly rates or equivalent salary rates prevailing on January 1, 1941.¹⁹

¹⁶ National War Labor Board, press release B-430, February 9, 1943.

¹⁷ See Barbara Klingenhaben, *Cost of Living Wage Adjustments*, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Industrial Relations Section, Special Bulletin, December 1, 1941 (mimeographed); National Industrial Conference Board, *The Cost of Living* (1941), pp. 31-40; U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Wage Adjustments to Cost of Living under Union Agreements*, May, 1942 (mimeographed); *ibid.*, "Wage Provisions in Union Agreements," Serial No. R. 1395, reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, November, 1941.

¹⁸ J. M. Leonard and Rosina Mohaupt, *Cost-of-Living Salary Plans for Municipal Employees*, Detroit Bureau of Governmental Research, Report No. 162, February, 1942; Robert I. Biren, "Adjusting Employee Salaries in Wartime," *Public Management*, January, 1943, p. 3.

¹⁹ National War Labor Board, General Order No. 22; *Pyrites Company Case* (No. BWA-370), December 1, 1942. The employees of the Pyrites Company had already

The Little Steel formula is based on the change in the national cost-of-living index between January 1, 1941, and May 1, 1942.²⁰ It may not be possible in some local jurisdictions to use the guide lines of the Little Steel Case in stabilizing pay levels and at the same time be realistic, especially where local cost-of-living indexes are not available or differ materially from the national figures. This, however, does not preclude present attention to the most usable time comparisons of cost of living in revising pay levels.²¹

TIME COMPARISONS OF COST OF LIVING

COST of living indexes showing recent trends or changes in the cost of living are customarily a part of the body of information necessary in developing or revising a pay plan. Conclusions from such indexes are frequently presented to pay-fixing bodies by employee groups and others to support requests for pay-scale revisions, especially in times of rapid and substantial change upward.

Fundamentally salaries and wages are measurable, not only by the number of dollars they contain, but also in terms of what that number of dollars will buy at any given time. In periods wherein the prices of necessities and comforts of living are rising, pay discussions speak of maintaining or restoring *real wages*, expressed in purchasing power, as contrasted with *money wages* expressed in dollars. Time-comparisons of cost of living will indicate changes in the purchasing

received increases of 19 per cent over their straight-time earnings of January, 1941.

²⁰ "This formula makes reference to the increase in the nation-wide cost of living between the dates designated. It does not call for an application of any formula which is based upon differences in costs of living between local communities. The Board cannot take such local disparities into account in correcting wage mal-adjustments." *Hotel Employers Association of San Francisco Case* (No. 21).

²¹ "If no satisfactory local index is available, the best thing to do is to use the Bureau's index for the nearest city of about the same size as yours, or to use the index for all large cities combined, as a general guide, realizing that there will inevitably be some difference in your local situation." U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Serial No. R. 1476 (1942), pp. 9-10.

power of a salary the number of dollars in which has not changed. For instance, if the prices of food, clothing, rent, household furnishings, and other commodities or services have increased ten per cent since the beginning of a given period, while an employee's salary of \$2000 has remained fixed, he has suffered a decrease in real wages or purchasing power; his salary of \$2000 will currently buy only what \$1818 would have bought at the beginning of the period. On the other hand, if such prices have decreased ten per cent, it follows automatically that he has enjoyed a corresponding increase in real wages.

Index numbers showing cost-of-living changes in various cities are computed and published regularly by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, the National Industrial Conference Board, and the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries. Those of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are published in *Monthly Labor Review* and in separate bulletins.²² Those of the National Industrial Conference Board are published monthly in *Service Letter*.²³ The series for Massachusetts is published in a mimeographed "Memorandum Relative to the Cost of Living in Massachusetts."

These index numbers are devices for measuring upward or downward changes in the retail cost of goods and services, in comparison with the cost in some standard or base period which is given an arbitrary value of 100. For instance, a cost-of-living index of 105 indicates a 5 per cent rise, and an index of 93 indicates a 7 per cent drop, both being in comparison with the base period of time, for which the index is 100. In a series of index numbers the change between any two given periods is shown by dividing the difference between the index numbers by

²² Answers to various questions relating to the construction, interpretation, and use of the cost-of-living index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are given in "What is the Cost-of-Living Index?", Serial No. R. 1476, reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, August, 1942.

²³ The cost-of-living index prepared by the National Industrial Conference Board is described in its pamphlet "The Cost of Living," published in 1941.

the index number for the beginning of the first period. For example, to compute the change between May and November, 1942, we subtract 116.0 (May) from 119.8 (November) and divide the result, .38 by 116. This gives .033, indicating a 3.3 per cent rise in that period.

IN TIMES of rising prices, employees and others sometimes doubt the accuracy of cost-of-living indexes, on the ground that their daily purchasing experiences show that the cost of living has advanced more than the index numbers would indicate. The reason for this doubt is, as a rule, too great an emphasis on changes in food prices to the exclusion of changes in other items in the whole budget. Naturally, attention is focused on those items the prices of which have gone up the most. Also, the cost of food is the largest single item in the budgets of wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers. The impact of using food prices on family expenditures is constant and obvious, to such an extent that smaller increases in other living costs are obscured.²⁴

The following summary indicates a method of constructing index numbers.²⁵

1. Case studies of family expenditures are made, showing how an average family of given composition at a particular economic level spends its income for food, clothing, housing, household furnishings and other commodities and services necessary for a given standard of living.

2. From these studies a list of commodities and services, weighed according to the

actual average expenditure pattern, is prepared. From this list, representative items are selected for periodic pricing.

3. The prices of representative items are secured from retail stores, real estate agencies, public utilities, and other cooperating agencies; the percentage changes are computed; and these changes are appropriately weighed and combined to determine the percentage of change in the cost of the whole budget.

4. By reference to the cost of the same budget in a selected base period, represented by an index of 100, the index numbers for each pricing period are computed, and the extent of change, if any, is noted.²⁶

Cost-of-living indexes, like the budgets upon which they are based, assume certain considerations as to standard of living, composition of family, occupational level of the worker, and localities where prices are secured. For example, the current Bureau of Labor Statistics series of cost-of-living indexes is based on a study of the expenditures of city families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers whose incomes are around \$2,000 a year or under. The changes measured by this series do not apply to all employees of a given jurisdiction, whose incomes and standards of living vary and who work and live under a variety of economic conditions.²⁷

²⁴ National Industrial Conference Board, "The Cost of Living vs. Food Prices," *Management Record*, February, 1942, p. 46; U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Changes in Cost of Living in Large Cities in the United States, 1913-41*, Bulletin No. 699, pp. 5-6.

²⁵ For more detailed explanations, see Works Progress Administration, *Intercity Differences in Cost of Living in March 1935* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1937), Chap. VII; Dale Yoder, *Personnel and Labor Relations* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1938), pp. 315-320; U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 699 (1941), pp. 15-26, and Serial No. R.1476 (1942); National Industrial Conference Board, *The Cost of Living*, 1941, pp. 12-30.

²⁶ "Individuals desiring to put the index on some other base than that currently used by the Bureau may do so by dividing each index figure by the index for the year which it is desired to use for a base and multiplying by 100. If an average for a group of years is desired for the base, each index will be divided by the average indexes for those years. If recomputations for a long series are desired, multiplication by the reciprocal of the index for the year or years which are to be used as the base is more convenient than division." U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin No. 699, p. 26.

²⁷ "Certainly, indexes based on studies of budgets of laboring class families cannot properly be used to deflate incomes of non-laboring groups or of white-collar employees, and indexes developed in one locality or for the nation as a whole may or may not be applicable to employees in any district other than that in which the budget study has been made." Dale Yoder, *Personnel and Labor Relations* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1938), pp. 321-22. See also Z. Clark Dickinson, *Collective Wage Determination* (New York, Ronald Press, 1941), pp. 122-24.

TO BE strictly comparable, a series of cost-of-living indexes implies a standard of living and a group of items of goods and services that do not change. It is impossible, however, to keep the contents of the budget exactly the same from year to year. Standards of living and the kind and quality of items in the budget change, as new or different articles or styles become available and as the consumption habits of the public are altered.

Adjustment of such changes so as not to impair the comparability of cost-of-living indexes in a time series is a difficult technical problem. A cost-of-living survey must be based upon a given standard of living; as that standard changes new surveys must be made to determine what the change in standards is in order to give cost of living surveys the accuracy which is essential to their usefulness. From time to time, accordingly, the budget forming the basis for developing cost-of-living index numbers needs to be revised to take account of changes in purchas-

ing and consuming habits and the standard of living itself.²⁸

Adjusting existing salary rates by a percentage equal to the change in the cost of living since such rates were established is not an exact mathematical device which, when taken alone, will always produce sound results. The achievement or maintenance of internal consistency among the pay scales in logical relation to the work of the various classes of positions is a controlling objective. This result, however, may not be secured if all existing pay scales are to be increased or decreased by a fixed percentage. Hence, index numbers showing changes in cost of living are general guides only, to be weighed with other information and data bearing on the adequacy of the pay scales considered collectively.

²⁸ For example, the original cost-of-living index of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, based on a study of expenditures of wage earners' and lower-salaried workers' families in large cities in 1917-19, has recently been devised. See United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Serial No. R.1156, March 15, 1940, and Bulletin No. 699 (1941).

Personnel Administration at the University of California¹

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FOR the most part, publicly supported state universities and colleges which have formal systems of personnel administration are under the general civil service agency for the area in which the institution is located. By the same token, university employees who are under civil service are governed by the same rules as the rest of the service. However, a few such institutions, including the Universities of Illinois, Indiana and California, have organization units to perform broad personnel functions.² In describing the program now in operation at the University of California, as well as the background against which it has been projected, the author hopes to bring out some of the factors of personnel administration that are unique to the academic field.

TYPES OF UNIVERSITY PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

THREE groups within an institution of higher learning present distinctly different problems in personnel administration:

¹ Dr. Joel Hildebrand, Dean of the College of Letters and Science, Prof. S. C. May, Director of the Bureau of Public Administration, Dr. Victor Jones, assistant professor of political science, and Mrs. Louise H. Klein, personnel technician, have each been kind enough to offer suggestions concerning this article.

² The University of Illinois has recently been exempted from the jurisdiction of the state civil service commission and a special personnel agency has been established under the Board of Trustees. The University of Indiana has a Personnel Division, and the University of California appointed a university personnel officer in July, 1942.

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the academic personnel, the students, and the non-academic employees. Academic personnel administration has a number of special characteristics, such as unusual permanence of tenure, class hours as the only specified hours of work, special vacations, sabbatical leaves, outside employment under certain conditions, "academic freedom," and delegation of considerable authority to academic committees. Academicians zealously guard their rightful privilege to perform their teaching and research responsibilities in their own way. By the same token, achievement in the academic world comes to those who have progressed beyond the normal intellectual pattern. Recognition of these facts in connection with a personnel program leads to a special effort to consider members of the academic family on an individual rather than a group basis.

Problems of student personnel administration naturally call for intellectual, social and vocational guidance, which is normally a function of members of the faculty. However, some of these problems involve the student's status as a part-time employee and thus concern the personnel administrator. The work of part-time student employees may be academic in character such as that performed by teaching assistants, readers or research assistants; or it may be non-academic, such as typing, clerical work, library paging, or check-room supervision.

This article is concerned principally with the third aspect of personnel administration—the present program of the University of California as it relates to non-academic

personnel. In this connection it must be recognized that the primary functions of a university are teaching and research. The most distinguished members of a university staff are often farthest by training and interest from purely administrative problems. For them to be most useful, details of administration must take as little of their time and energy as possible. The faculty is properly very much concerned with recommendations of policy, but the administration of the university exists to serve the faculty in the execution of non-academic business. Then, too, the extreme specialization of particular departments in itself results in administrative complexities for the university as a whole. In most private and public institutions of higher learning, business managers have performed the functions of personnel administration for non-academic employees as well as fiscal, purchasing, and other management functions. In some cases responsibility for certain specific personnel functions such as recruitment has devolved on the department head, either academic or administrative, as the case might be.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

THREE are a number of administrative characteristics of the University of California, such as size, geography, public corporation *vs.* state agency, and similar factors, which form a significant background to the personnel program. A brief introductory description of these conditioning factors will serve to illuminate the discussion which follows.

There are three convenient measures of the size of a university: the amount of its budget, the number of employees, and the number of students. At the University of California the highest enrollment was 34,355 regular students in the academic year 1939-40. This total (the largest registration of regular students at any university) included students for all sessions and all campuses. The largest single campus registration occurred at Berkeley in the fall semester of

1939, when 16,199 students were in attendance. During the same academic year, a total of 48,854 students were registered in the University Extension Division, and from July 1941 to January 1943, a special war program, the Engineering, Science and Management War Training program, has trained over 44,000 students.

The university has seven campuses of various sizes. Berkeley has the largest number of students; the Los Angeles campus is second. In San Francisco is located the Medical Center, including the University Hospital. The Davis and Riverside campuses are devoted exclusively to the activities of the College of Agriculture. The Scripps Institute of Oceanography is located at La Jolla, and the Lick Astronomical Observatory on Mt. Hamilton. The University is spread over a wide geographical area. It is well over 500 miles from Davis to La Jolla, and an overnight train trip between the two largest campuses at Berkeley and Los Angeles.

Although the number of registered students is the most common measure of the size of an institution of higher learning, the most appropriate measure for personnel purposes is the number of individuals employed. In the case of the University of California, over 17,000 persons were employed during 1942. This number is not an index to the total number of positions, for it includes many students and other persons employed for short periods each term, hundreds of guards employed for special events such as football games, and is further enlarged by the extremely high personnel turnover accompanying the war emergency. Out of the 17,000 employed in 1942, the academic staff numbered approximately 1000, including instructors, assistants, associates, and full professors.

ANOTHER factor significant in the development of the personnel program is that the University is a public corporation supported, in part, by state funds. The employees of the University, by a constitutional amendment adopted in 1934, are exempt

from the provisions of the state civil service program. Thus the usual legal requirements common to those systems which operate under civil service do not exist in the case of the University. The fact that support, in part, is derived from the state government leads to the frequent question on the part of University employees as to why they should not be treated in the same manner as other state employees. Points of comparison frequently occur in relation to vacations, sick leave, holidays, pay rates and, at present, the application of emergency salary increases. On the other hand, federal and state legislation concerning maximum hours of work and minimum wages affect the University much as they do any other corporation or private business. Contracts with unions are not made by the University, although in most cases a special effort is made to follow local union practices.

For most purposes the University does not take on the character of a part of the state government and in thinking of the personnel program, one should bear this in mind. When it does assume such a character it is usually with the deliberate intent of the president and the Board of Regents to adopt and apply policies similar to those of state agencies. Thus the personnel program is being developed within a framework established, for the most part, by the Board of Regents and the president.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNIVERSITY

SINCE personnel administration is but a single phase of the administrative program of the university, a discussion of its features will not be clear without a brief description of higher level, non-academic, administrative organization. In this connection several principles of administration may be recalled. Three that come to mind are: first, that administrative work should be organized by function; second, that auxiliary and line activities should be separated and the auxiliary functions placed under the chief administrative officer; and third, that

administration should take place under unified direction. These principles are unusually well recognized in the University. Auxiliary functions are performed by the following principal administrative officers who are directly responsible to the president: the chief accounting officer, the comptroller, the assistant to the president in charge of public relations, and the personnel officer.

The chief accounting officer, a certified public accountant, is responsible for all fiscal, accounting and budget functions. The comptroller is the business manager of the University, responsible for purchasing, business management and the direction of the largest non-academic departments of the University. He is represented by campus business managers on the Berkeley, Los Angeles, Davis and San Francisco campuses. He also represents the University at sessions of the state legislature. The assistant to the president is responsible for public relations, including press relations and the preparation of written material concerning the various activities of the University. The personnel officer, who occupies a newly created position, is also responsible directly to the president.

FULL understanding of the organization of an institution of higher learning is incomplete without an appreciation of the use and effect of committees. At the University of California, where practice corresponds to that of many similar institutions, it is common for both the academic Senate and the administration to use committees to carry on continuing functions of investigating and advising on particular problems. There are over fifty official administrative committees, over twenty-three standing committees of the academic Senate, and over thirty-five committees of the faculties of the various colleges and schools of the University. In addition to these "permanent" committees, the president on numerous occasions appoints a temporary committee to study a special problem. Such temporary

committees are commissioned to make recommendations to the president, who in turn takes final action. Such a committee, for example, was established to consider the proposed classification and compensation plan for non-academic positions in the spring of 1942.

Another factor entering into the university administration is the unusually favorable position in which any administrative officer, and particularly the personnel officer, is placed with regard to the immediate availability of expert advice within his own field. A bureau of public administration is located on the Berkeley campus, and the Los Angeles campus has a bureau of governmental research. In each instance the bureau is directed by an individual with a wide background in public administration. Full departments of psychology are maintained at Berkeley and Los Angeles, presenting unlimited opportunity for advice concerning scientific tests and testing procedures. The two large departments of economics include faculty members with extensive knowledge of personnel and labor relation practices in private industry. These experts have been recognized locally and nationally. At the present time members of the faculty serve on state and city civil service commissions, are members of distinguished bodies, such as the National War Labor Board, and have served on a number of occasions as personnel consultants to private industrial organizations.

In addition to the regular members of the faculty, experts from private industry and elsewhere are frequently invited to teach courses in personnel management, employment testing, and related subjects for the Extension Division, or, in the present emergency, as a part of the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training Program. A university personnel officer is in the position of regretting that lack of time alone prevents his taking full advantage of the expert information which is so close at hand. However, there are and will continue to be occasions in which he should consult with

one or more of these experts on particular problems within his field.

CLASSIFICATION AND COMPENSATION SURVEY

SEVERAL times prior to 1941 requests had been made for the appointment of a personnel officer and for a position-classification survey. As early as 1929 attempts had been made to classify employees. Later, in 1933, efforts to adjust wages showed the desirability of a broad classification and compensation survey. In November, 1941, the president requested the bureau of public administration to conduct a survey of a portion of the non-academic positions known as "group B-2." The survey was begun under the able direction of Louis J. Kroeger, former executive officer of the California State Personnel Board, who joined the staff of the federal Bureau of the Budget in December. The writer continued the survey, and it was submitted to the president early in March, 1942.

This survey followed customary procedure, and resulted in the preparation of class specifications for some 140 classes, covering over one thousand positions. The cost of one survey was \$1500, and an additional \$500 was required to print the report.

Two characteristics of the specifications are significant. The first is that the "minimum qualifications" section included only brief statements concerning education and experience. This was done for the reason that the university does not recruit thru the customary civil service examining channels. A short qualifications statement thus suffices for present purposes. The second characteristic is that, in the "duties" statement, a deliberate effort was made to avoid the use of such terms as "under immediate supervision" or "under general direction." Knowledge of supervision received, as usually phrased, adds little to the proper allocation of positions to such classes as telephone operator, pianist, boat captain and many others.

Along with the classification plan was presented a compensation plan, together with recommendations concerning the mainte-

nance of both. The proposals were reviewed by a temporary committee of administrative officers appointed by the president for that purpose. With a few minor changes in individual allocations the committee recommended to the president that the plans be adopted. The president accepted these recommendations and placed the plans in effect July 1, 1942 the beginning of the new fiscal year. At that time employees receiving salaries under the minimum of the salary range were brought up to the minimum. Exceptions to this occurred in cases in which the required amount would have been over twenty-five dollars per month. In such cases the president approved a raise up to twenty-five dollars with the understanding that further adjustment would take place at the beginning of the next fiscal year. A recommendation that no reductions be made in cases of salaries over the maximum of the salary range was followed with the understanding that when vacancies occurred new employees would enter at salaries within the range.

INAUGURATION OF THE PROGRAM

ALTHOUGH several recommendations for the appointment of a personnel officer had been made in previous years, the problem of maintaining the newly installed classification and compensation plans according to the principles upon which they were based undoubtedly did much to focus attention on the need for the position. In July a personnel officer³ was appointed, with the understanding that his duties would also include that of lecturer in political science with responsibility for assisting in the teaching of an upper division course and a graduate seminar in public personnel administration.⁴ In addition, the personnel officer

was soon appointed executive secretary to the University War Council. As might be expected, many personnel problems found their way to the University War Council so that this additional assignment was not wholly unrelated to the personnel task.

At the time of his appointment, the personnel officer found himself with two basic instruments upon which to build a personnel program. These were the classification and compensation plans. A revision of the employment regulations, which was then in progress, had been postponed pending the appointment of the personnel officer. Development of these revisions has since provided an effective opportunity to shape the personnel program. The responsibilities of the personnel office have broadened as the months have gone by with the assignment of more and more personnel functions from other organization units to the personnel office.

It may be noted in passing that two of the agencies within the University have been carrying on personnel activities of a specialized character for some time. These are the two Bureaus of Occupation, one in Berkeley and one in Los Angeles. They serve the dual purpose of assisting students and former students to find employment outside the University in private industry and government service, and are also responsible for aiding department heads in recruiting clerical, stenographic and other office-type personnel. The academic departments which employ laboratory technicians and other specialists and the larger administrative departments such as Grounds and Buildings with their hundreds of workers including janitors, laborers, skilled craftsmen, etc., have maintained a long tradition of securing their own personnel. In some cases, such as the University Press, recruitment takes place thru

³The personnel officer operates with the aid of one full-time personnel technician.

⁴Two distinct advantages were provided by the inclusion of teaching in public personnel administration as a part of the work of the personnel officer: it served to keep the personnel officer constantly aware of developments in the field and their relation to the practical phases of everyday administration; and both courses have proved themselves sources of urgently needed man-

power for the personnel office. The assignment of practical work to students provides effective training and at the same time accomplishes work on an economical basis. The values to be derived from requiring an administrative officer, no matter what his specialty, to teach others about his own field, should never be underestimated.

labor union organization. In filling technical laboratory positions, the faculty often selects its better students.

The present personnel program will be most clearly understood if each of its phases is discussed separately, with attention being given present status, plans, and wartime adjustments in each phase. These phases include classification, compensation, recruitment, training, employee relations, rules, and forms and records. Although research is sometimes considered a separate function, it is apparent that research in the broad sense is constantly going on, especially in the installation of a program. Research will thus continue as a major function.

As the discussion of the present responsibilities of the personnel office proceeds, it is desirable to keep two thoughts in mind: that this description is based on the experience of a few short months; and, that major administrative readjustments are required in institutions of higher learning by the war emergency just as much as in private industry and the government service. Possible modifications in personnel functions may be expected as a part of future development.

THE CLASSIFICATION PLAN

THE classification plan is currently being maintained thru the frequent use of work audits and the amendment of class specifications wherever necessary. The decision of the personnel officer on classification and allocations is final, except for appeal to the president. So far as time will permit, the use of the personal approach to the faculty and administrative supervisors thru work audits will be increased. While such an approach is always desirable, it is particularly valuable in the University of California because faculty department heads were not called together during the original classification survey to hear its principles and procedures explained. These interviews not only provide opportunity for reciprocal classification information but also give the personnel officer background information of a broad character which assists him in making

more intelligent decisions on personnel matters.

At the present time the classification plan is being extended to include positions in an additional group, defined as "janitors, gardeners, laborers, artisans and other persons of similar status," and those paid from "general assistance" funds. An additional twelve hundred positions will probably be in this group, including the jobs in the large university hospital. The total number of classes will probably come to two hundred and fifty for the whole "classified service."

A number of interesting classification problems emerged from the original survey. One of these was the difficulty of distinguishing between "senior" and "principal" laboratory technicians. After several months of work in which many of these positions were audited, a series of factors differentiating the two levels has been developed. In the series of laboratory assistant classes a decision was made to make the class "laboratory assistant" of an apprentice character with the understanding that promotion to either "senior laboratory assistant" or "senior laboratory technician" would be made when the department head believed that the "journeyman" level of skill had been reached. The difference between senior and principal laboratory assistant is being analyzed further. The series of classes in which the most difficult allocation problems exist is the one in which the classes of stenographer, secretary-stenographer, secretary, and administrative assistant I and II are found. This situation is not peculiar to the University but is common wherever there are classification plans. Anyone describing allocation factors for these classes which will be readily understood by administrators will be making a most valuable contribution to the field of position-classification.

THE COMPENSATION PLAN

CHANGES in compensation ranges are made by the president on the recommendation of the personnel officer. A fairly

extensive file of up-to-date compensation information is maintained in the personnel office and recommendations concerning changes are based on these data. Since part of the revenue of the University is secured from state funds, a special effort is made to compare salary recommendations with present rates under the California State Personnel Board. The fact that the state government, as a part of the University Medical Center at San Francisco, is now operating a psychiatric hospital whose employees come under the jurisdiction of the State Civil Service Act, also creates a situation requiring special care. Half of the hospital director's salary is paid by the state and half by the university.

One compensation problem that has arisen concerns whether salary ranges should be applicable uniformly to every campus, or whether geographical differentials should be established, based on conditions existing locally. Salary ranges in the printed compensation plan apply equally to all seven university campuses and this would appear to be acceptable practice for these classes. The important question has been whether local campus rates should be applied to janitors, carpenters, police, and other similar skilled and semi-skilled employees. The California State Employees Association has recommended that compensation for all classes of work be placed on a state-wide basis.

Another important problem involves the determination of the "prevailing rate." For some time certain types of work have been paid on the basis of the "prevailing rate." Closer analysis of some of these rates has resulted in finding that no single rate "prevails" in the community; in fact, a number of different rates may be known as the "prevailing rate" depending on one's sources of information.

An effort is now being made to prepare a comprehensive compensation plan covering practically all non-academic positions except possibly those of top administrative officers. To each class of positions will be

added either a state-wide compensation range or the statement that the "prevailing rate" is to be paid. A formula will be developed for the determination of the "prevailing rate." This latter step is of immediate importance because the legislature has recently passed a bill providing a \$15 per month emergency salary increase covering the period from July, 1942 to February, 1943, and another law providing an emergency increase of \$25 or \$20 per month, depending on the salary, for February to June 30, 1943.

In each of these cases persons paid the "prevailing rate" are ineligible for the increase. Thus the immediate value of a determination of "prevailing" cannot be overestimated. The fact that the university has a compensation plan is particularly valuable in the application of the emergency salary increases to new employees. If there had been no compensation plan the rate at which new employees were to be paid would represent a complex problem of computation.

One of the early recommendations made in the fall of 1942 was that appointments of new employees be allowed not only at the minimum of the range but also at some rate above the minimum, depending upon the individual's previous training and experience. On the whole this policy has justified itself. In administering such a policy, however, one caution should be remembered: salaries of present employees must always be carefully compared with the entering rate for a new employee. Little objection is found to appointments at rates well above the minimum if new employees have considerable experience.

SALARY INCREASES

UNDER the present procedure, salary increases are approved by the personnel officer. Appeals from these decisions may be made to the president. In this connection, determining who should receive salary increases is no easier in a university than elsewhere; to assist in arriving at decisions the personnel officer relies on the advice of a campus personnel committee on the

Berkeley campus and personnel representatives on the other campuses. Under the present policy (at least up to the time of the emergency "bonus"), increases were granted to female employees receiving salaries of less than \$125 per month, and to male employees receiving less than \$150 per month. In some cases requests were approved for pay increases in "critical" occupations earning up to \$200 per month.⁵

Under previous University policy salary increases were granted only annually at the time of the adoption of the University budget. Because of war emergency conditions existing in the fall of 1942, the personnel officer recommended that salary increases be allowed at his discretion during the year. The adoption of this policy, perhaps as an emergency measure only, has undoubtedly resulted in retaining a number of valuable employees. It has, of course, increased the pressures on the personnel office for other increases, although not as much as might be expected.

In some cases salary increase requests can be financed from departmental budgets, and in these cases the personnel officer acts without referral to the president. In other cases departments can not find the money and must ask for additional grants from the president's emergency fund. Each request involving this fund is approved personally by the president whether the request involves personnel or other matters.

THE personnel officer realizes all too well that no system of salary increases yet devised can be expected to escape criticism. The procedure is by no means crystallized. At present, the personnel officer takes into consideration the following factors in acting on requests for salary increases:

1. A determination as to whether the em-

⁵A few of these "critical" occupations included automobile mechanics, x-ray technicians, animal caretakers (particularly those responsible for plague infected animals), and a few other occupations in which there were only a limited number of employees and each occupied a position wherein replacement was practically impossible.

ployee is in a "critical" occupation, or, perhaps, in a "critical" department.

2. The salary history of the employee in the University.⁶
3. The recommendation of the department head, and campus personnel representative or the campus personnel committee.
4. The salaries of other employees within the same class.

In connection with this last-named consideration, it may be mentioned that statistics have been assembled giving information concerning the median, and first and third quartiles of the present salaries within a number of well populated classes. The first attempt to assemble these figures was by laborious hand methods. Since the University's accounting department has a complete International Business Machines accounting installation, a tabulating card has since been developed for each employee, giving classification, salary information, and other data. When these cards are punched (a project that has had to be postponed temporarily on account of a shortage of help), it is intended to prepare statistics by class of employment, listing employees in order of highest to lowest salaries. Thus any individual salary may be compared with the distribution of all the salaries within the class. The personnel officer also expects to develop additional uses for IBM equipment for personnel operations.

Although it is understood that the salary range provides the limits within which salary is granted, the policy of allowing exceptions by the personnel officer has been adopted. In a few cases approval of appointments below the minimum have already

⁶Under the present system of personnel records this information is not easily obtained. A combination employment application and service record card has recently been developed. If this form is finally adopted it will provide easy access to information concerning the employee's experience and training prior to his entrance to the University and also his record with the institution. Whereas in most civil service organizations it is necessary to retain the application with the examination papers, in the University this is not a requirement. Thus a combination of application and service record on one form is possible.

been approved. This approval has been granted only with the understanding and agreement that if the employee proves satisfactory his salary will be increased to the minimum within three to six months. The personnel office has established a tickler file to review these cases at the proper time. Other exceptions to the range will be made only under unusual circumstances.

The original survey report had this to say concerning the maximum of the salary range:⁷

From a compensation standpoint, certain men of the highest academic and research standing are, as one well-known university president has said, "scale breakers." Perhaps then, from the standpoint of securing and holding men of the desired talent in research operations, it may be advisable to consider the proposed maximum rate as the rate applicable except under the most unusual set of circumstances.

A few salary increases over the maximum have been granted on the basis that a change in the range itself was contemplated at an early date.

RECRUITMENT

THE managers of the two Bureaus of Occupations mentioned earlier in the article operate with the understanding that they have authority to approve a salary above the minimum of the range for new employees who possess greater than average training and experience. In most cases recruiting of clerical personnel is thru these Bureaus. However, department heads may and frequently do present their own candidates. In the case of technical personnel, department heads often use their own sources or call the United States Employment Service for aid.

With these facts in mind the personnel officer has considered the advantages and disadvantages of a more centralized program. In certain cases there are a number of reasons for departments doing their own recruiting. For example, as would be expected, academic supervisors of national and

international reputation not only attract the attention of qualified personnel better than a central personnel office, but they may also be particularly well informed of the sources of talent that will best suit their own specialized interests. This is particularly true in the case of laboratory technicians, many of whom are interested primarily in working for the man who will best further their own training. Of course, as is so universally true at the present time, all possible recruitment sources are being exploited in order to obtain even reasonably qualified personnel. There has been some evidence to the effect that the United States Employment Service is desirous of centralizing recruiting thru its offices. However, no immediate changes in the University's present recruiting policy are expected.

Freedom from preference factors of every sort, including local residence restrictions, contributes constructively to the recruitment program. If preference is to apply to any candidates for positions it might best apply to persons who have graduated from the institution. This is justifiable, since university training brings with it loyalty and some knowledge of internal operation.

Formal examinations with resultant eligible registers are not particularly appropriate in cases in which the faculty supervisor may wish to be given a free hand in the selection of especially gifted students or exceptionally well qualified persons who may be located in other parts of the country. On the other hand, a university probably has a greater opportunity to use standardized test material than the usual civil service jurisdiction. Examinations of all kinds, of course, are a familiar part of university procedure and it may be expected that the use of such material would be given official encouragement far beyond that usually received in a government organization.

TRAINING PROGRAM

THE opportunities for a training program of broad scope are obvious in an organization having teaching as its primary

⁷ Boynton S. Kaiser, *Classification and Compensation Plans for Non-Academic Positions in the University of California*. Berkeley, Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1942, 113 pp.

purpose. For example, the effect of the training given to laboratory technicians and assistants by their academic supervisors is apparent. However, no efforts to establish formal training for employees has been established up to the present time. Two in-service training courses are already planned and others may be expected to follow. The Extension Division of the University, which has installed many outstanding training programs for aircraft and other industries of California, is extremely interested in what can be done for university employees. Extension Division specialists are developing these two courses. One will be an "orientation" course in correspondence form for all new employees. Conducting the course under the correspondence system is an advantage as new employees enter at different times. Experience will indicate whether such a course should be given under the correspondence or the class system; either choice is available under the Extension Division. The personnel office also plans to develop an employee manual to aid in employee orientation.

The Extension Division is also engaged in developing a course in letter writing for university employees. It will be a class course and may be given in two parts, one for clerical personnel and the other for executives. These two courses that have been mentioned are being considered as "pilot" courses and their results will be very closely observed by the Extension Division and the personnel officer. Their successful development will point the way to other courses, perhaps more closely related to specific occupations in which the most important personnel shortages exist.

Closely allied to the in-service training program is the University's interest in the training of students for personnel work. The University gives some twenty-five courses in various phases of personnel administration. These include courses in public personnel administration, personnel management, industrial relations and labor economics, personnel psychology including testing tech-

niques, time and motion study, and vocational guidance.

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

THE employee relations function is an exceedingly important part of the personnel program. Relationships with employee associations form a complicated picture, for employees of the University belong to a number of unions. For example, members of unions are found in the printing trades represented in the University Press; operating engineers, carpenters, plumbers, electricians and other craftsmen belong to other groups. Organizations represented among University employees include some affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, some with the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and some with the independent organization, the California State Employees Association. The last-named organization, with its experience in the field of state government under civil service, is interested in the application of certain state personnel board rules to the University. Each campus has a chapter organization of the CSEA, and a university-wide personnel committee has been established. Many employees are not affiliated with any employee association. Certain groups such as nurses, librarians, technicians, and others maintain affiliation with professional and semi-professional associations.

Although officials of the University are in almost daily contact with union groups it should be re-emphasized that the University does not contract directly with any of these organizations but in many instances is careful to follow local practice. The personnel officer has frequently invited these groups to make suggestions concerning the employment rules, and to bring to his attention specific cases involving alleged injustices.

The personnel officer is in the process of completing a comprehensive revision of the personnel rules. The fact that classification and compensation plans have been adopted necessitates a rather extensive revision of these rules. Even before the appointment of

the personnel officer the rules were in the process of revision. The proposed revisions include new subjects such as classification, compensation, employee relations, employee privileges, promotion, duties of the personnel officer, and separation.

PROMOTIONAL POLICY

SEVERAL of these proposals may be of interest. For example, one of the most important rules relates to promotional policy. The University, like any other large organization, has found it difficult to stimulate promotions across departments. The proposed rule reads in part as follows:

1. The extent to which a career system is realized depends to a large degree on an effective promotional policy. Promotion of qualified personnel improves both employee morale and the quality of service rendered to the University.
2. The following procedure is used to expedite the promotion of competent personnel within or between departments:
 - a. On the basis of training, experience and performance, the Personnel Officer or Campus Personnel Officer prepares a list of the two or three best qualified candidates.
 - b. The head of the department in which the vacancy exists selects a name from the list, or may suggest someone else with equal qualifications.
 - c. The employee selected is offered the promotion by the department head.
 - d. Simultaneously, the department head involved is notified of the offer.
 - e. The offer may be accepted or rejected without prejudice by the employee.
 - f. If the employee accepts the offer, employment starts within two weeks in the new position.

Although this rule may not work out particularly well in practice, a continued effort is being made to carry out promotions across departmental lines since the president and the personnel officer both believe that thru such a policy non-academic university service may be made even more attractive as a career. A large university stands in considerable need of such a policy inasmuch as it is composed of a great many small, extremely specialized departments, and the opportunities within a particular department may be very limited. In addition, an institution of higher learning employs many college grad-

uates in lower level clerical, stenographic and other positions. Every possible avenue for the promotion of this group of well educated, high-capacity individuals should be explored if the university is to retain their services and take full advantage of the skill, loyalty, and wider acquaintance with the University which they acquire in the course of their service.

CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

CONSIDERABLE care is being taken in the drafting of the rule regarding employee privileges. The University, with its many physical, social, and intellectual recreational facilities and activities, is in a unique position to offer attractive privileges to employees. The important consideration point is not that employees have *free* access to all of these facilities, but that they be made available, perhaps at a small cost.

The University, like most other organizations, provides two basic types of leaves without pay: military leave and leave for personal reasons. At present military leave is granted only to those who enter the armed forces or the Office of Scientific Research and Development.

The rule concerning leave-of-absence is among the rules that apply to the faculty as well as to hon-academic personnel. This rule is under review at present by the faculty because of the limitation that military leave may not now be granted to many persons who have accepted appointment to civilian groups. These groups, although extremely important to the war effort, are not actually a part of any of the military branches.

In any personnel program the question of the use of service ratings inevitably arises. No rating system has been in effect in the University and none is contemplated until the time arrives when ratings are more enthusiastically endorsed by administrators and employees elsewhere. In the meantime the personnel officer will keep himself apprised of developments in this field, bearing in mind that certain adaptations might be of value to the University.

FORMS AND RECORDS

ANY description of a personnel program must of necessity mention the use of forms and records. Many of the most valuable tools of personnel administration are in written form. Forms and records used in the University include the following:

1. A single sheet classification questionnaire with a supplementary descriptive booklet of instructions. (The booklet is no longer used but was necessary for the original survey.)
2. A single sheet combination application-and-service-record form. (Use of this form is now under consideration by the president.)
3. In-service transaction or change in status forms. These include forms for promotion, separation, appointment, salary change, etc.
4. A complete alphabetic employee file with employment application, record of service with the University, final filing of change in status forms, earnings record, and similar data. At present this file is housed in the accounting office.

In connection with this last-named file, it may be mentioned that the extent to which it is being relied upon for supplying information to meet various federal and state requirements is growing steadily. An expansion of this file to cover additional data on each employee is needed. Uniform records and record-keeping practice on each campus is another need to be met. Finally, plans are being made for developing a system of tabulating cards for use in connection with the International Business Machines, and the further application of this equipment to personnel functions will also be studied.

WARTIME PERSONNEL ADJUSTMENTS

AS MIGHT be anticipated, the war has affected personnel functions in a number of significant ways. Since the personnel staff is extremely small, the exigencies of daily operations have slowed down the prog-

ress of installing other phases of the program. However, long-term objectives are clearly in mind and will be reached as soon as time, circumstances and money permit. For example, the present classification plan may not represent the long-term situation because of recent wartime organizational adjustments of major proportions within the University. A classification plan is desirable, however, even though important future changes may be expected.

The following enumerated points cover briefly the principal adjustments that have been made in the University's personnel program to meet the wartime situation:

1. More frequent approval has been given to requests for individual salary increases, particularly those involving critical occupations.
2. Emergency salary increases have been granted to all except "prevailing rate" employees.⁸
3. Several upward adjustments have been made in the salary ranges adopted in the spring of 1942. The need for this has momentarily decreased with the emergency salary increases which will be applicable not only to present employees but also to new employees. Should this emergency increase be abolished a rapid review of present ranges would undoubtedly be advisable.
4. In many cases the work week has been lengthened. To date this has been done on the basis of a request from the department head with the understanding that, if granted, salary increases will be "straight time" for the additional hours. Although

⁸These "increase in cost of living bonuses," passed recently by the state legislature, first took the form of a flat \$15 per month increase. Later this was changed to \$25 per month for those receiving \$300 per month or less and a \$20 per month increase for all those above that figure. The latter increases have been made effective from February 1, 1943 to June 30, 1943. These adjustments will probably be continued, perhaps not in exactly the same form, for the next biennium, or for the "duration." Increases apply to all state employees, including those of the University. Important university officials have questioned whether this formula was the best that could be devised. Questions have been raised as to why it should apply to all, even those already earning over \$6000 or \$8000 per year.

long hours have been customary mainly in war projects such as the Radiation Laboratory, more departments are making this request. Lengthening the work week under present circumstances is a very valuable solution to many pressing problems. It allows an organization to carry on the same amount of work with fewer employees; it also allows the remaining personnel to receive more money. However, the work week should not be lengthened any sooner than necessary. If this action is postponed, department heads will be forced to fill vacancies as long as they can do so. Otherwise approval of the longer work week may merely be the easiest way out of a difficult recruiting problem, a problem which will become more difficult as time goes on. Again, consideration should be given to human capacity to work. Determination of the maximum optimum work week is extremely important. If replacement is impossible the lengthened work week may be the only practical answer to the problem.

5. In a number of cases customary entrance qualifications have been lowered. Many faculty members are accustomed to stenographers who are college graduates with high scholastic standing. Under present conditions the primary recruiting objective is to secure stenographic skill alone, irrespective of educational background. A delicate balance must always be maintained between the granting of an occasional salary increase to worthwhile employees and the possibility of being required to employ less qualified personnel at higher rates under present conditions in the labor market.

6. A continued effort is being made to persuade department heads to think of replacements in terms of women rather than men. Many supervisors have been prompt to respond to the logic of this request.

7. Special efforts are being made to reduce non-essential functions. Two stenographic pools exist at the present time. A survey under way at the moment may lead to the further use of these pools as a means of meeting the shortage of stenographers and the prospects of a reduced budget.

8. As already described, the University grants military leaves for those entering the armed forces or the Office of Scientific Research and Development. These leaves carry with them more privileges than the ordinary leave without pay. In many cases no effort is being made to replace those on military leave. In other cases persons will be employed on a temporary basis.

9. Adjustments in age limits have taken place. A number of the faculty have been called out of retirement and bills are in the state legislature at present calling for changes in the compulsory retirement age. If expected changes do take place it will be possible to retain a number of employees about to retire and to employ others of advanced years to meet a tremendous shortage of trained workers. Although a university is accustomed to low age limits through employing students, these young men and women are being placed in more responsible positions than ever before.

10. The employment regulations of the university state "vacations are not cumulative." Strictly interpreted all vacations are cumulative. It is purely a question of how long they shall be allowed to accumulate. Under present university rules vacations must be taken within the calendar year in which they are earned with the understanding that if this can not be done they must be taken before March of the following year. Proposals are now before the president recommending that vacations be allowed to accumulate during 1942 and 1943 if departments find it necessary. As might be expected a number of employees have not been able to take their 1942 vacations. In this connection the request for salary payment in lieu of 1942 vacations was raised. Although there are merits to this suggestion it was not adopted. Final decisions on what is done with vacations will depend partly on the length of the war and possibly the condition of the University budget. The University may finally adopt a policy of shortened vacations as the best solution.

11. The University has adopted a policy

which controls "pirating" of personnel between departments. This policy reads, in part, as follows:

. . . department heads obtain releases from other department heads in cases in which they desire to employ not only non-academic but also academic personnel from another University department.

Also, if an employee resigns in the hope of being employed by a new department ninety days must elapse before he shall be considered eligible for re-employment, unless released prior to that time by the head of the department from which he resigned.

12. A state law prohibiting the employment of non-citizens except as teachers or experts temporarily employed justifiably restricts sources of recruitment. In a few cases employment has been permitted under these exemptions.

13. The present employment regulations prohibit the employment of relatives in the same department or division. Some liberalization of this restriction has been allowed especially on work that is expected to be of a temporary nature.

14. In some cases additional employment beyond the regular work week is allowed in another department. In one case, for example, an office worker whose hobby is machine shop work is now working for the Radiation Laboratory on Saturday afternoons and Sundays as a machinist.

15. Employee grievances are being given prompt consideration. Although decisions on such matters may by no means always be in favor of the employees, disposing of them promptly may in itself save the situation.

16. A number of months ago the faculty and employees of the University were rated by department heads on the basis of their indispensability.⁹ These ratings were reviewed by others and a university "umpire" was appointed for each campus, having the responsibility for requesting occupational deferment under the Selective Service Act. In some departments, such as engineering,

⁹This rating technique has proved to be most valuable, particularly with reference to the faculty. A university's reputation depends on the quality of its faculty. Any reductions necessary because of the war should be made only after "Olympian" judgment has been applied to each individual case. Years of effort go into the assembling of a faculty of high quality.

chemistry, and physics deferment has been requested and granted for practically all the staff. In other departments no requests for deferments will be made. This situation requires constant action and close review as the reduction of personnel that takes place in a department may affect the status of the remaining members.

17. The presence of many hundreds of employees in the University working on war contracts has had an effect on normal personnel functions. For example, the Radiation Laboratory alone is large enough to require the services of a full time personnel officer. Again, rates paid employees serving under war contracts are determined by department heads and efforts to attract qualified personnel to temporary positions may in some cases result in higher rates than are paid in the rest of the institution. Those persons who have transferred from the regular university departments to service under war contract have, in most instances, done so without increase in salary. The president has authorized the personnel officer to review salaries paid to non-academic personnel serving on war contracts.

CONCLUSION

MUCH of this article has been devoted to a description of the mechanics of personnel administration as they are being applied to a particular university. It is most important to recall that the best personnel policies are virtually useless without administration thru the informal personal approach which establishes mutual respect, confidence and cooperation between the personnel office and the organization and individuals which it serves. At the University of California every effort is being made to administer the personnel program according to this policy, for success of any phase of administration can not be guaranteed solely by the wording of a series of rules or principles.¹⁰

¹⁰See George D. Louderback, "Faculty-Administration Cooperation at the University of California," *Bulletin, American Association of University Professors*, April, 1938.

The fact that this article has touched on a wide range of subject-matter reflects the steadily growing interest in personnel administration that is being shown by institutions of higher learning everywhere. A few, such as the Universities of Minnesota, Virginia, and California, have published classification and compensation plans. Michigan has, for some time, been interested in position-classification. Illinois has a person-

nel program, similar in many respects to that found in the usual civil service organization. Practically all large private industries and governmental units have organized for personnel administration. With the increasing complexities of personnel problems it is safe to assume that more and more educational institutions will likewise find it desirable to meet these problems by adopting comprehensive personnel programs.

Job Attitudes of a Hundred and One Federal Employees

CHARLES N. COFER AND ELEANOR B. COHEN

IN THE last several months there has been an increasing interest in the job attitudes of federal employees. Reports of a high rate of personnel turnover have been circulated and Washington newspapers have published numerous letters from employees expressing dissatisfaction and discontent with jobs and personnel practices. Because this evidence and the impression it creates are in the nature of an indictment of federal personnel procedures, and because it is important that the factors causing discontent be understood so that they may be ameliorated, the authors have attempted to investigate the problem. The purpose of this paper is to outline the method used and describe the principal factors associated with job dissatisfaction shown in this study.

It should be recognized at the outset that there are many factors extrinsic to the job itself which are important in job satisfaction. Among these are housing, transportation, and recreation facilities. If any or all of these are poor, job attitudes may be influenced for the worse. In this study, however, attention has been concentrated on determining what are the factors *intrinsic* to the job which tend to lead to discontent. It was our belief, which seems to be substantiated by our evidence, that the extrinsic factors, at least within limits, are only incidental and incapable themselves of causing discontent in the presence of satisfaction with work, and that when dissatisfaction is present the

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extrinsic factors may or may not be pointed to as major irritants.¹ Hence, in the interviews conducted in this study, the emphasis was on factors intrinsic to the job, although opportunity was allowed for comment on the various extrinsic factors.

In the present study, no formal definition of job satisfaction-dissatisfaction or of employee morale has been attempted. For the purposes of this study it appears sufficient to be content with an employee's statement about his job attitude, and on that basis he has been classified. This usage seems consistent with Hoppock² and others who have studied the problem. We shall not review the various studies of employee morale made in private industry by Roethlisberger and Dickson, Hoppock, Bergen³ and others, which have indicated very strongly the importance of the worker's attitude for his work efficiency. These findings have led to counseling programs and emphasis on various employee welfare and recreational activities as means for modifying this attitude. The federal government likewise has instituted similar programs, and the data which we have secured may serve partially to measure the adequacy of such methods in mitigating the problem.

¹ The minor role played by purely extrinsic factors is demonstrated by a recent analysis made by the United States Civil Service Commission, covering almost 5,000 exit interviews with federal employees. Complaints about transportation and recreational facilities were negligible.

² R. Hoppock. *Job Satisfaction*. (New York, Harper, 1935.)

³ F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson. *Management and the Worker*. (Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1941.); R. Hoppock, *op. cit.*; H. B. Bergen, "Measuring War-time Attitudes and Morale," *Personnel Journal*, May, 1942, pp. 2-10.

No effort has been made in this study to determine the relative numbers of federal workers who could be called "satisfied" or "dissatisfied." The objective was to discover dissatisfied workers and to study the factors associated with this dissatisfaction. Briefly, the principal factors of this nature which we shall describe are the following: over-recruitment and poor placement, poor supervision, and lack of opportunity for promotion.

METHOD USED

TWO primary considerations dictated the choice of the method used in this study. One was that we wished to obtain as full and clearcut an expression of opinion as possible; we therefore used an interview rather than a questionnaire technique. The other was that we wished to secure a sample of government workers which would not be weighted with chronically discontented, neurotic "cranks." It has seemed possible that a large number of those who write letters to newspapers and otherwise make public their complaints may consist mainly of this latter type of person.

On the other hand, it also seems reasonable that there may be many satisfied employees in the federal service, as well as other workers who are dissatisfied but for different reasons than the group above mentioned. The views of these other employees should be known. The method used may not have given a representative sample of the Washington population of government workers as a whole (it is difficult to determine what the characteristics of this population are at present), but at least it is certain that no selective factors operated which would overload the group with continual complainers.⁴

All of the interviewing was done by one of the authors during the months of August and September, 1942. The interviewer frequented places in Washington where government workers would be likely to be and

selected cases to be interviewed at random. The only considerations allowed to offset a completely random sample were that we desired to include workers of both sexes, from "new" and "old" agencies, from "war" and "non-war" agencies, from a wide salary range but concentrated at the lower levels, from a wide age range, and with a wide range of experience in government work.

Of the 105 persons approached, only 4 refused to be interviewed; thus the findings are based on interviews with 101 employees. There seemed to be only a few persons in the total group, perhaps only two or three, who might be suspected, on the basis of our contact, of being cranks or neurotics. The duration of the interview ranged from about ten minutes to as much as an hour, the typical interview lasting from 15 to 20 minutes.

Thirty-two agencies were represented by the workers in the sample; 61 came from "war" agencies and 40 from "non-war" agencies. Twenty-seven came from "new" agencies and 74 from "old" agencies. Fifty-eight of those interviewed were female, 43 male. Eighty-two were single, 19 married. Other characteristics of the sample may be found in the accompanying table. (In this table each array is independent.) It is clear that the typical worker in the sample is young, earning a relatively low wage, has worked a short time for the government, and is single.

The interviewer began each interview by saying that she was a college student writing a paper on what government workers think of their jobs. After the interviewee indicated his willingness to participate (anonymity was guaranteed), he was asked to state the name of his agency, his salary, job title and duties, age (three women refused to give this information), marital status, length of his government service (in Washington) and amount of education. Notes were made during the interview and no effort was made to conceal the record from the interviewee. The employee was encouraged to speak freely about his job. Questioning was resorted to only for clarification of obscure

⁴ Since the *locale* of the study was limited to Washington, there is no basis for determining whether there are any significant differences in the job attitudes of employees in Washington and those out in the field.

DISTRIBUTIONS OF 101 EMPLOYEES IN INTERVIEW GROUP,
SHOWING (A) AGE, (B) SALARY GRADE, (C) LENGTH OF
GOVERNMENT SERVICE, AND (D) PLACE OF INTERVIEW.
(N INDICATES NUMBER OF CASES.)

A. Age *	N
16-20	23
21-25	45
26-30	14
31-35	9
36-40	2
Over 40	5
Unknown	3
* Median—23.5	
B. Salary Grade ^b	
\$1200-1320	8
1440	31
1620	24
1800	15
2000	9
2600	8
3200-5600	6
* Median—\$1620	
C. Length of Service ^c	
6 months or less	35
7-12 months	27
13-36 months	23*
37-60 months	6
61-120 months	6
Over 120 months	4
* Median—10 months	
D. Place of Interview	
Cafeteria	34
Drug store	21
University campus	11
Union	6
Park	5
Street	2
Other	22

points and to make certain that comments were obtained on each of the following points: attitudes toward supervision, promotional policies of the agency, placement, conditions of work, pay, hours of work, housing, and transportation. It was observed that the major sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction were usually indicated spontaneously; points brought out by questioning usually seemed to be of minor importance.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

A REVIEW of the 101 cases indicates clearly that there are not two distinct groups of workers who might be characterized as "satisfied" and "dissatisfied." Instead, it would seem that the cases fall at various points along a scale ranging between these two extremes. In classifying our cases, there-

fore, we have added a third category, called "neutral." The use of these three categories, while violating the notion of a continuum in some respects, is justifiable if we recognize that all of the cases in any one category do not represent the same degree of attitude toward the job. For the sake of convenience we have simply placed together all those cases which could be described by the same class name, without regard for the amounts of the property corresponding to the name.

According to our judgments of these cases, 41 can be called "satisfied," 32 "dissatisfied," and 28 "neutral." It must be emphasized that we have no justification whatsoever for concluding that these figures are indicative of the relative proportions of workers in the total government population that fall into these categories; our major interest has been to discover dissatisfied employees and to study the important factors associated with their dissatisfaction. It would take a much larger and more representative sample than the one here discussed to estimate the percentages of workers in the whole government population who are satisfied, dissatisfied, or neutral.

The following cases are presented with two objectives in view: to illustrate the three groups mentioned above; and to describe by means of the case material the principal factors associated with dissatisfaction as they appear in the data. In this connection it should be noted that there were no marked differences in the three groups in the characteristics of the subjects composing them.

The typical satisfied employee was receiving \$1800 a year, was 25 years old, was studying part-time in college or had had some college work, and had had 15 months' government experience. Sixty-one per cent were female and 83 per cent were single.

The dissatisfied worker was very similar in these respects, differing only in that he was a little younger (median age, 23), lower paid (median salary, \$1620), and with less government experience (median 10 months). There were no differences between these groups in other characteristics, and the

variability or range of ages, salaries, and similar factors was the same for the two groups.

The typical neutral employee was 22 years old, receiving \$1440 a year, was not quite so well educated as the above groups and had had about seven months of government experience. Fifty percent of this group were male. In all other respects it was similar to the other groups, and in all characteristics the ranges were as wide as in the other groups. Such differences as were brought out are small and statistically insignificant.

ILLUSTRATIVE CASES

THE illustrative cases which follow will serve as the best means for defining the three categories. Names of agencies have been deleted, and the material presented here is an abstract of the detailed notes taken by the interviewer. Where quotations are used in the case reports they indicate that the material is taken verbatim from the interviewer's record.

The Satisfied Employee

Case 25 was a commercial specialist, salary \$3200, who analyzed security transactions involving frozen foreign funds. Male, 30, single. He had been working for the government for 3 years. Had a B.A. and M.B.A. in economics. The case stated that he liked his job, which is "in line with major interests," and with what he studied in college. He found the job himself and feels it is the best thing he could be doing. He receives and gives supervision, and his supervisors are good. Advancement opportunities are excellent if one is qualified, and "promotion policies are good because from within. . . . Usually pay is dependent upon former employment—a good idea to get better people. Now that classification is under Civil Service Commission it is easier to transfer than to get reclassified." His job is OK in all respects, primarily because he is doing just what he wants to do. He is not desirous of transferring to a war agency as he is too happy where he is.

Case 58 was an assistant clerk-stenographer, salary \$1620, who did typing, shorthand and served as a time clerk. Female, 21, single. Had been working for the government two years. Graduate of a business college. She stated that she "thinks job swell; job duties are fine and the people are nice; doing just what trained for." She feels there is a future for her in her work. Supervision is swell. No complaints at all because the people she works with are so nice and the work so interesting.

These cases may be considered typical of those designated as "satisfied." Others were

not quite so pleased with their jobs as the above two, but none wished to leave his job or failed to show a positive reaction to it.

The Neutral Employee

Case 33 was an assistant messenger, salary \$1200, who did general office work and carried messages. He was supervised directly. Male, 16, single. Had been working one and one-half months for government. Had one more year of high school to complete and planned to continue there in the fall. "The job is OK just for the summer . . . wouldn't want to do it permanently; no future or advancement. Duties OK for the salary. Wouldn't do it a long time." The supervision is fine and his associates OK. Wouldn't want it for a permanent job. Interested in going to college after finishing high school.

Case 71 was a stenographer, salary \$1620, who did statistical work. Female, 34, single. Had been working 9 years for government. Had two and one-half years in college. Likes job fairly well. The people she works with are nice. Doesn't like routine details but enough variety to make job interesting. Not fully satisfied with job but staying on because of promise of future; job OK as a stepping stone to something else, as not now being used to the full extent of her training and experience. Wouldn't stay at job if there was no chance for advancement. (There were numerous criticisms directed at working conditions.)

These cases illustrate the nature of the neutral employee category; the employee does not dislike his job, but he is not enthusiastic about it either. It would seem easy for him to like or to dislike it if changes were made, or if expected changes did not occur.

The Dissatisfied Employee

Since the factors associated with reported job dissatisfaction are the primary interest of this study, more cases will be cited from this group than from the other two. It must be remembered that the word of the employee is the only evidence available concerning his dissatisfaction and the reasons for it; this must enter into the evaluation of the cases presented. Cases have been selected which seem to reveal most clearly and typically the various factors associated with job dissatisfaction.

Case 15 was an assistant clerk, salary \$1620, who performed various clerical duties. Female, 23, single. Had worked one year for the government. College graduate with major in statistics. She stated that

she didn't like her job. "The work is terrible; don't use brain at all; nothing in my education prepared me for this; a child of nine could do this work; no use going to college if this is where I end up and I'm frozen here. Two releases were refused for jobs in statistical work commensurate with background." Supervisor treats employees like children, can't stop to talk even for a minute, no consideration for employees. Have half hour for lunch and have to wait 20 minutes in line; docked if late in returning. Office ventilation is bad. Wants Saturday afternoon off; resents limitation on amount of leave. Transfers not allowed and there is no chance for advancement. "Whole trouble is that agency took best people regardless of relation to job demands and now is keeping girls from going to agencies where they could do more good. Not qualified for my job . . . qualified for something better in own field. Each agency in the government is in competition with others for workers."

Case 20 was an assistant clerk-typist, salary \$1620, who did filing and some typing. Female, 20, single. Had worked one year for government. High school and business college graduate. "Don't like job . . . hate filing . . . expected to do typing and shorthand because had experience and training for it. Have done filing for one year . . . could just die." No future where she is. Complained about leave policy and having to work Saturday afternoons. Supervisor poor. "Satisfied with everything but work and that is disgusting. Anybody could do work I'm doing; don't have to go to high school, and business college is wasted."

These two cases illustrate reported dissatisfaction associated with reported overrecruitment and poor placement. The individual may be trained and experienced at a level above that of the job for which he was recruited; he was placed there anyway and seems unable to arrange for a change. Or the level of the job may be satisfactory, but the employee is not using skills he has. This may be a problem in cases having widely different backgrounds. A trained stenographer who wants to do typing and shorthand may be as discontented with filing as is a college graduate with routine clerical work.

The cases just cited show some unfavorable reactions to the supervisors; the following group of cases seems to show this reaction as the predominant condition associated with job dissatisfaction.

Case 21 was an assistant clerk-typist, salary \$1620, who searched in files and did a little filing and typing. Female, 21, single. Had been working for the government one year. High school and business school graduate. She stated that her work was all right but that her boss was cranky, nervous. You

work your fingers to the bone and never receive thanks. The boss was out for one month and then the job was OK. "When she came back it was awful again. She bawls you out as though you were a kindergarten child and you can't defend yourself. The job is unbearable because of her (the supervisor). Would like to go home on leave to get away from it all. . . ." No future on job. No other complaints except that "business college is just wasted" and she's still paying for it. Could do good job in typing and shorthand and would take more business education, only she can't get out of this job and she wouldn't use it here. "What's the use?" Would rather work at \$1440 a year for another boss but can't even get into another section.

Case 43 was an editorial clerk, salary \$1800, who edited decisions handed down by his agency. Male, 28, single. Had been working for the government for 4 years. College graduate and one and three-quarters years of law. Stated that he liked his job fairly well but that the working conditions were bad. "The supervisor is old, senile, stupid, and incompetent and got his job by seniority. He has no ability to do it. He refuses to accept responsibility but places that on others and shows his authority by being petty." Job should be reclassified to a \$3000 a year level, but reclassification is very slow. Efficiency ratings are not fair and promotion is according to lines of favoritism. (This case probably stands at the borderline between the dissatisfied and the neutral categories.)

Case 10 was a stenographer, salary \$1620, who supervised 4 girls and took dictation. Female, 21, single. Worked 7 months for the government. High school and business college graduate. Stated that she intends to resign. Person in charge is bringing in 4 new girls at \$1800. These new girls will be trained and then they'll supervise us. The new girls are friends of the man in charge. She would have to wait for months before getting a raise or a promotion.

Case 40 was a junior clerk-typist, salary \$1440, who did filing, searching, and a little typing. Worked 6 months for the government. Male, 23, single. High school graduate and some work in extension courses. "Not pleasant to work for the government . . . superiors give you no personal consideration. No advancement unless you know the right people. Civil service influenced by political pull. Immediate superiors make rules to benefit themselves and not the employee. Supervisors drive you and treat you like a unit." Very dissatisfied with job. Job was misrepresented. Came as typist, which work he likes, but he doesn't do much here. Doesn't want to work for government. Work dull and uninteresting. No future. Like to have Saturday afternoon off. "Overpaid for the work," but he feels capable of earning more. Needs increased pay because of high cost of living.

These cases indicate dissatisfaction associated with reported deficiencies in supervision. Of the four cases cited, each one seems to illustrate a different aspect of supervision:

Case 21 reacts to the personality of the supervisor; Case 43 has been impressed by the supervisor's ignorance and inefficiency; Case 10 is dissatisfied because of alleged favoritism; and Case 40 rebels against "inhumaneness" of the supervisors.

The following case is cited to illustrate the reported dissatisfaction which is associated with inability to secure advancement. This is brought out here more clearly than in other cases above.

Case 37 was an assistant clerk (mail classifier), salary \$1620, who sorted mail, classified and numbered it for filing, and filed it. Male, 28, married. Worked five and one-half years for the government. High school graduate and six months in accounting. He stated that he was "fed up with the job. No more chance for advancement, doing same thing day after day." Trained as a machinist but can't get a government job as a machinist, maybe "because I'm an Italian. . . . Trouble with government is that they don't move people out who have been on the job for a long time. . . . Other agencies don't bother with you unless you've had more education." Feels stuck. Disgusted with the way things are run. You "get ahead only if you know the right people." Wants to try something else but government gives no chance. Supervisors won't help; claim their hands are tied. Will join Navy to get out of it.

Many other cases could be cited, but those above seem to represent the rest fairly well. A few special cases may be mentioned briefly. Case 73 was dissatisfied because she desired a career in dancing, which government employment does not afford. Others were dissatisfied not so much with the job they were doing as with the way the war program was being executed; this reaction was confined to a few highly placed employees. Case 101 had just been separated because of inefficiency; she stated that her disgust with her job had led to the inefficiency.

REVIEW OF FINDINGS

IT WOULD appear from a review of the cited cases, as well as the remaining cases in the study, that extrinsic factors are not the principal sources of complaint in this sample. Furthermore, many employees of all groups must be subjected to at least some similar unfavorable conditions—poor housing, poor ventilation, inadequate transpor-

tation, and the like. Yet many employees report satisfaction, and few neutral and dissatisfied employees complain about the extrinsic factors to which they are subject. It may be that, in the cases of dissatisfaction, complaints about such factors are by-products of the resentment aroused by intrinsic job conditions, and that this response is generalized to include the extrinsic factors.

The foregoing evidence, recapitulated, indicated that the following were the major complaints associated with dissatisfaction: those arising from over-recruitment and poor placement; those arising from poor supervision; and those arising from inadequate opportunities for promotion and advancement. It will now be our task to raise the implications for personnel work which follow from the evidence. As a general comment we may say that some means for making employee grievances known would be valuable, perhaps through the utilization of employee organizations.

Insofar as over-recruitment and poor placement are concerned, several points can be made. When specific jobs are to be filled, examinations are usually given and definite education and experience qualifications are prescribed. It would seem that every effort should be made to adjust such qualifications and examination procedures to suit the specific jobs to be filled; if they were low level jobs, maximum as well as minimum scores and qualifications might be found useful. Intensive study of the validity of such examinations and requirements, at any rate, would seem to be indicated. It would likewise seem important that a register which has been set up for a particular position should be used for another position only with extreme caution. It is apparent in a number of the cases that employees who applied for a particular position did so because that was what they wanted to do. They were considerably upset when the job turned out to be something that they did not expect. Some of these conditions can be ameliorated by placement activities, but this solution is

limited by the number and type of available jobs. It would also seem important to investigate thoroughly the value of interest measurements in selecting and placing prospective employees.

Poor supervision is, of course, a very difficult problem with which to cope. Some help may be derived from the training programs for supervisors that are now under way. It might be very worthwhile to institute a study of the characteristics of supervisors for whom employees like to work as a basis for the future selection of persons to be trained for supervisory posts.

THE problem of advancement and promotion is related to the others that have already been mentioned. It would seem worthwhile to emphasize promotion-from-within, but it should be recognized that, after workers are initially selected and placed, only a small percentage can reasonably expect ultimately to be placed in the few jobs at the higher levels. It may be necessary to consider the abrogation of the relationship

between compensation and advancement in job duties and responsibility; with proper selection methods it might be possible for many employees to be satisfied with routine jobs if there are adequate provisions in the pay plan for granting merited pay increases within reasonable limits and without involving promotion.

It is not possible to evaluate present-day programs of the employee service variety on the basis of the evidence of this study. It should be emphasized, however, that such activities as counseling, personal attention to the worker, employee welfare and recreational activities, and concern for the working, housing and transportation conditions of the employees may all be only temporary techniques for raising morale which leave untouched more important problems. Such employee service activities are of undoubted value and in some cases may solve problems. But in the face of other conditions that need remedying, their efficacy as a solution to deep-rooted problems of employee attitudes is seriously questioned.

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Military Personnel Administration: the United States Army¹

MAJOR REUBEN HORCHOW

THE Army classification process for its enlisted personnel has been described in numerous publications from varying points of view; but that process has not been adequately pictured as a part of a well integrated, planned personnel system, and as a specific type of public personnel administration. Superficially there would seem few points of similarity, but on closer examination the Army personnel system offers interesting parallels to many phases of the general problem of public personnel administration and may suggest procedures, if not techniques, for the better solution of many of the present-day problems in the public personnel field.

Broadly speaking, public personnel administration in general might be discussed under the headings of classification, recruitment, placement, training, promotion, tenure, and research. The Army personnel system, too, may be discussed within this framework. Such an approach, will make more intelligible the planning that has gone into the system and will clarify some current misapprehensions which are due, in part at least, to the prevalent confusion concerning Army nomenclature.

¹This is the first of a series of articles dealing with military personnel administration in the United States Army, Navy, and Marine Corps. The present article is concerned primarily with the program of the Army as it applies to enlisted personnel. Future issues of the *Review* will contain articles describing the programs of the Navy and Marine Corps, respectively, as well as the Army's program for its commissioned personnel.

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POSITION-CLASSIFICATION

THE wide and indiscriminate use of the term "classification" to describe many personnel procedures in the Army has perhaps been the principal contributing factor to the civilian personnel worker's occasional misconception of these procedures. The public personnel administrator thinks at once in terms of classification of jobs, whereas much Army literature speaks in terms of "classification of men." Actually, however, the Army does classify jobs, and what it calls "classification of men" is a part of the examination and placement function. The Army, just as any other large employer, has a wide variety of different jobs and it appreciates even more fully than most employers, public or private, the necessity of a sound and comprehensive position-classification system. In one sense, the Army's problem is simplified, in that the classification system is not compelled to take into account the hairline distinctions that burden most classification systems for the purpose of establishing the hierarchies of supervision and the gradations in pay which hinge upon the "classification" of the employee's position.

The Army has an established hierarchy. Grades and ratings establish the supervisory level, and these are of two kinds. On the one side are the non-commissioned grades which carry with them the command functions. Paralleling them are the ratings for technical personnel which carry supervisory but no command authority. From highest to lowest these grades and ratings may be expressed as follows:

<i>Grades</i>	<i>Ratings</i>
Master Sergeant	—
First Sergeant	—
Technical Sergeant	—
Staff Sergeant	Technician, 3d Grade
Sergeant	Technician, 4th Grade
Corporal	Technician, 5th Grade
Private, 1st Class	Private, 1st Class
Private	Private

On the command side these ranks correspond to the gradations in civilian personnel practice of the supervisory and administrative function; on the technician side they correspond to those of the professional and research functions. It is to be remembered that this discussion is confined to enlisted personnel, but the hierarchy and the separation continue on through the commissioned grades. As a whole, then, the very structure of the Army is a classification of positions, advancement through which is by merit—a classification which provides equal pay for equal work.

It is somewhat curious that the Army system as a prototype of an indigenous and democratic merit system has never been treated or studied as such, but perhaps the military dress of the system has concealed those aspects. Even the distinction between enlisted and commissioned personnel is merely the familiar distinction between the professional and the nonprofessional classifications of the civil service. If the analogy is not as close, it is yet to be borne in mind that passage from the enlisted to the commissioned grades has always been possible, even in peace times, without the benefit of West Point—and increasingly so in war times. It need only be noted that by the end of 1943, over three fourths of our officers will have come from enlisted personnel through Officer Candidate Schools.

BUT more specifically, how are positions classified? First of all, the organization chart is studied. In the Army the organiza-

tion chart for each unit is called a "Table of Organization." Taken collectively, these tables ("T/O's," as they are known) show for each kind of unit in the Army the requirements for commissioned and enlisted personnel, the grades and ratings assigned to the personnel to enable it to function properly, the titles and code numbers for the various jobs, and a summary of the equipment which the unit must have. These tables are established with consideration for the job, or "mission," to be performed by each unit. Tables for larger units are built up by putting together tables of smaller units. This is invariable for what are known as "tactical units." For other units, need for which exists more largely in wartime to meet expanding and nonstandard needs, a system of allotments of personnel to meet these special needs is used. In effect, these allotments are merely special tables of organization which are deliberately made flexible so as to permit easy adaptation to the constantly changing needs of these special missions.

Each of these tables is built of jobs—standard jobs. Analysis of the mission determines what specific jobs are found. The Army's job classification plan² (Army Regulation 615-26) is consulted to ascertain the job title and code, and when all of those found to be necessary are placed in the table of organization for that unit, the result is the complete pattern.

In the Army job classification manual are listed and coded all of the jobs which enlisted men perform in every branch ("arm" or "service") of the Army; in it are found the standard job descriptions which are the indispensable backbone of any classification system, with a statement of duties and responsibilities, qualifications (both general and special), and a list of civilian and military sources from which may be drawn the men for the job. These job descriptions have been established by careful analysis of the jobs as found in the Army, using the best

² Army Regulation 615-26 is available from the Superintendent of Public Documents, Washington, D. C., price \$1.25 per copy.

techniques of job analysis familiar to the public and private personnel administrator—by questionnaire and by field study of the job as it is actually performed.

In 1939 and 1940 the United States Employment Service made extensive field studies of all Army jobs then being performed. These studies to the number of some 7000 were used as basic material in the formulation of the job classification manual. Following completion of this basic work, a special and adequately staffed section in The Adjutant General's Office has kept current with the constant job additions, deletions, revisions, and changes so that the manual has constantly kept pace with the organization which it reflects. It is interesting to note that the manual, first published December, 1940, was revised completely in December, 1941, and again in September, 1942. It is now a volume of 741 pages, together with a 35-page supplement issued in March, 1943.

As a consequence, position-classification in the Army is a current activity and the Army classification plan closely approaches the ideal situation of being constantly revised to meet the needs of the organization which it serves. It does not, as do many civil service classification plans, place the organization in a straight-jacket; it actually does what a classification system is supposed to do—serve the organization. This it can do so freely because it is not necessary to refer each change to a legislative body for sanction. The Congress has established the general framework and has left to the Army the responsibility of fitting the detail to the specific job to be done.

RECRUITMENT OF PERSONNEL

IN RECRUITMENT, Army practice is totally different from either private or public personnel practice. For the largest part, our Army has been built through Selective Service. The small Regular Army and the not so very much larger National Guard were recruited on a different basis, and some voluntary recruiting continued until the end of 1942, but by and large the Army has

had to make no independent effort to obtain its applicants. Some branches, notably the Air Corps, the Ordnance and Signal Corps, the Engineers, the Quartermaster Corps, sought certain specialists—a process analogous to the recruiting of qualified applicants for civil service positions.

For the vast majority, however, the qualifications were expressed merely in terms of physical standards. Thus, the Army cannot do as other employers have done in the past: perform part of its placement and training job by selective recruitment, made further selective by a system of examinations designed to differentiate those qualified from those unqualified to perform a specific job. The Army has accepted a cross-section of several million of our civilian population, with no screening other than physical, together with the elimination of the mentally defective and psychopathic. Furthermore, it has had to develop a placement and training system of amazing size to fit this unselected group to jobs, most of which have no civilian counterpart.

PLACEMENT PROGRAM

MOST of what has been written on Army classification work has actually referred to placement of personnel. Placement has to do with the individual men, whereas classification (as a technical personnel expression) is concerned with the job. In the idiom of the public personnel field the Army classification system would be called the Army placement system, for "placement" is what is meant when the Army speaks of "assignment." These differences in terminology are not important in themselves, but they are important when they serve to obscure the personnel job which the Army is doing.

In Army placement activities are found many techniques which the civilian personnel administrator places in the recruitment phase of the job. For example, we find the application (the statement of education, training, and experience), the written examination, the performance test, the interview, and the determination of eligibility

for assignment to a specific job. There are, of course, cogent reasons why these phases must, in the Army, be shifted. Since the Army accepts every man who meets the physical standard as qualified for some Army job, all of these techniques must here be employed.

The Army needs clerks, cooks, truck drivers, mechanics, airplane pilots, to mention a few of the hundreds of jobs. The Army, however, can reject no one for a job in the Army once physically accepted. It takes the undifferentiated group, relying on examination techniques not only to place the properly qualified in specific jobs, but also to place all the others in the kind of training for which they are best adapted so as to fit them for the jobs remaining to be filled.

In contrast with this, the customary practice in a civilian personnel agency in normal times is to recruit what it wants as such. Applications are solicited from clerks, cooks, etc. and if the applications disclose lack of training or experience those persons go no further. Then the field of applicants is further narrowed by one or more of the techniques of examinations until only those remain who demonstrate ability to perform the specific job. Only then is placement on the job ("assignment" in Army language) possible, and here it means the assignment of the properly certified individual to the specific job for which he is qualified.

Since the Army's "classification" procedures have been discussed fully in many articles, no attempt will here be made to discuss this process in detail. However, a brief resume is in order. Every man who enters the Army is given the Army General Classification Test, the Mechanical Aptitude Test, and the Radiotelegraph Operator's Test. Every man is interviewed to determine his education, his civilian experiences, his interests, his hobbies, and evidence as to his qualities of leadership. Performance, trade, and other tests are given when the need is indicated. On the basis of all of the evidence thus produced, each man is

assigned to a job which he is qualified to perform, or assigned to training for a job for which he seems best adapted.

This is not to say, of course, that every file clerk, no matter how well qualified, is placed as a file clerk. After all, the Army can use only a limited number of file clerks, and once that number of jobs is filled all the other file clerks must be trained to another job. That process often is a net gain to the individual, for many file clerks (even good ones) were file clerks not because they wanted to be but because the cards fell that way, and many file clerks have potentialities and aptitudes for many different jobs. If there is one significant fact which has come out of this Army job of placement, it is the affirmation of the almost limitless flexibility and adaptability of the human being. This, and the amazing picture of the release of human capacity held in bounds in civilian life by the narrow confines of a job or a chance-acquired skill, should be seriously pondered by our civilian personnel administrators.

TRAINING ACTIVITIES

THE Army has always had to do a superlative job of training. In fact, throughout its life the Army has viewed its job largely as a training job. It is to be remembered that the peacetime Army seldom offered a man a career which he felt was comparable in advantage to what civilian life offered. Thus it could not recruit positively the trained specialists which it needed, nor could it set up selective barriers on the basis of education, experience, and training. The Army's sole criteria have been an ability to meet certain physical requirements, a reasonable level of literacy and intelligence, and a good character. It has consistently said, not only in word but in deed, that it could and would train any such individual for a job in the Army. This it has always done.

It is fortunate that such has been the Army tradition, for when the job of training an Army of raw recruits came overnight, the job was not new. It should not be assumed that

this training is merely what the layman thinks of as military training—"squads east and west; and shootin' and more shootin'." Besides training every man to be a soldier, to be able to take care of himself, and to use the basic weapon of his branch, the Army had to train hundreds of thousands of specialists of all kinds. It had to train cooks, mechanics, and electrical specialists, as well as riflemen and gunners. Its training program for airplane pilots alone runs into amazing thousands. And this entire training program had to begin functioning at once.

THE enormous training facilities of the Army are in three main patterns. Each arm and service has one or more Replacement Training Centers. After the recruit has been inducted, and after determination of his proper assignment at the Reception Center, he is sent to one of these Replacement Training Centers. Here he begins his training as a soldier. At the same time that he is being hardened physically and taught military discipline and the use of his basic weapons, he is given training in some particular field in which he has already qualified or for which he has shown some aptitude or leaning. Thus, at an Infantry Replacement Training Center, a man will learn how to be a good infantry soldier—how to fire his rifle and handle a machine gun. At the same time he may be getting training as an automobile mechanic, a truck driver, or a cook.

This may, however, be only the beginning. If the man displays real ability he may then go on to a special service school where he receives advanced training of an even more specialized nature. Every arm and service has its special service schools, and many of them not only maintain their own schools but, in addition, use the facilities of civilian schools under contract arrangements for technical training.

Nor is this the full extent of the training program. Quite as important is the training of men in units. A very large number of men are sent directly from Reception Centers to units, especially to units being

newly organized ("activated"). There they receive both extensive and intensive training in the specialties of their arm or service. Nor are the gates closed to advanced training. All trainees receive careful consideration for further school training. After receiving such training they return to their units to be used not only in positions of increased responsibility but also as instructors for other men.

Thus, we find Army life a continual chain of training, each man being given every opportunity to develop his fullest potentialities. Frequent use is made of specially devised and standardized tests, and each man is under constant scrutiny for further development. In this Army nothing is static except a condition of development.

Perhaps one of the most interesting phases of the Army training program is the special emphasis placed on the training of illiterates and non-English speaking soldiers. In special training units these men are taught to read, write, and understand English. When they have reached a level of literacy that places them on equal terms with their more fortunate fellow-soldiers, they are given every opportunity to receive all the training that they can absorb. This one special training activity alone is most challenging in its democratic and social implications.

PROMOTION POLICIES

EVERY personnel system worthy of the name offers its workers incentives for meritorious performance, and among the most powerful and tangible of these is promotion. In order to be most effective, of course, promotions should be given not capriciously but on merit, and everyone should have equal opportunity to rise on the promotional ladder. Even in peacetime the Army offered opportunity for promotion to men who worked well and faithfully. As compared with the then-expanding private industry the opportunities were relatively small, but as compared with positions in static governmental agencies the comparison was not at all unfavorable.

Today, in an expanding army, possibilities for promotion are almost limitless, and every man with any potential qualities of leadership is marked and groomed for promotion. To the man who applies himself to his work, promotion through the grades or ratings and into the commissioned grades is almost inevitable. Rarely do promotions go by favor. The rule of merit is far more closely followed in the Army than elsewhere and the corroding influence of nepotism and preferment for political reasons is rare. Seniority plays very little part today. Even in peacetime, it was not unduly emphasized, particularly in relation to promotions of enlisted men, although a somewhat different situation prevailed with regard to officers. However, today, even in the case of officers, seniority has little to do with the vast majority of promotions.

It might be well to point out that aside from the regular promotion list for Regular Army officers, all current promotions are temporary—a condition which is inevitable in an organization that is emergency in its character. What the future holds will, of course, depend upon the size of the Army after the war and other factors which cannot now even be guessed. One interesting feature of the Army's system of promotions is the decentralization of authority to make promotions. Within the permitted numbers in a table of organization or an allotment, the unit commander names his non-commissioned officers. In this way it is certain that the enlisted man who performs well need not wait for any cumbersome machinery to work. His unit commander, who is closest to his work, can and does take action.

There is also a reverse side to promotion. The officer having authority to promote may also demote. It is an authority, however, which is disciplined to act justly; and abuse of such power is so rare as to be exceptional. Restraints, though perhaps not formal, are usually exercised in the rare cases of abuse that do occur. The promotional program is founded on a sound policy which, in years of

operation, has proven its wisdom and has built up its tradition of fair dealing which provides a sanction more binding than that of mere statute.

In one other respect the Army system of promotion offers an interesting contrast to civilian organizations. In public and private organizations it is not at all unusual for the upper brackets to be filled by bringing in new personnel from outside the organization, by examination or otherwise. In the Army, however, filling upper-level vacancies by promotion is the general rule, and every enlisted man enters at the bottom of the scale. Thus the Army actually keeps its promotional possibilities at their maximum.

TENURE

SECURITY and tenure are central facts, if not the theory, of every public personnel system, as well as the aim of most social and labor legislation. The Army offers a system of security and tenure which might well be studied. Leaving aside the present emergency organization, enlistments in the Army in normal times are for three years. During that time the soldier is assured of tenure subject only to punishment as a result of his own wilful and flagrant misconduct. Separation from the service by a dishonorable discharge can be accomplished only after a general court-martial and a trial. In such a trial the soldier's rights are zealously guarded and he is furnished adequate defense counsel, usually of his own choice. His protection is far greater than under most civil service laws and certainly infinitely more so than in private business.

Even during peacetime, however, there was the opposite factor of compulsion for the soldier to remain in the service for his term of enlistment, though release before that time was possible upon payment of a specific sum of money varying with the length of time remaining in the enlistment period. At the end of his enlistment the soldier whose service had been satisfactory could re-enlist in the grade which he then held, with a bonus offered as an inducement

for such re-enlistment. In the days before the war it was not at all unusual to see a higher ranking noncommissioned officer with an array of "hash marks" (service chevrons) extending up his coat sleeve to the elbow. Today almost all of these men hold temporary commissions, many as Lieutenant Colonels and Colonels, and they no longer wear the chevrons. But the years of service represented by the "hash marks" are figuratively still there, stamped in their character.

RESEARCH

NO PERSONNEL system can operate intelligently and progressively unless useful research is conducted on its operations and techniques. It is a function not always given adequate recognition, and the lag in much of our public and private personnel administration is due in large part to the virtual absence of this function. However, the Army has by no means neglected this important aspect of its personnel job. Since early 1940 at least two large sections of the Adjutant General's Office have been engaged in personnel research. The Army's whole system of tests has been built up as a result of careful professional work.

Studies are being made in every phase of the personnel field—on tests, on training, on selection, on assignment, on the utilization of manpower and womanpower, on occupational analysis. Techniques are constantly being devised, revised and refined. Special work has been done in the field of utilization of mentally limited men. Extensive preparatory studies were made prior to

the induction of the 18 and 19 year group to insure the wise utilization of this group. Special studies were made and are still in progress on the Army Specialized Training Program (college education under Army auspices of some 150,000 young men now in or coming in to the service).

OTHER ASPECTS

CErtain other features of a personnel system have not been discussed in detail. Pay, welfare, recreation, health, retirement are among other factors to be taken into account if such discussion is to be complete. In the Army system these factors have equal if not greater importance than in civilian personnel administrations, but their discussion would be too extensive for a single article. Some of them, such as recreation and health, have far wider implications in the Army than in any civilian setting and any discussion of just these two phases would involve description of two complete branches of the Army—Special Services and the Medical Corps. Sufficient, however, has been said to indicate that every detail of a complete personnel program is to be found in the Army system.

In conclusion, it may be said that the Army has a well-rounded and complete personnel program. It is doing a personnel job of vast proportions and in doing it is making use of the best personnel techniques previously developed. More important, it is devising new techniques and methods which cannot fail to have an influence on future developments in the civilian personnel field.

The Preparation and Use of Personnel Forms

ROBERT I. BIREN

ADMINISTRATION proceeds on paper; forms are the bridges between planning and action, and between action and control. The paper work of management can degenerate into the red tape against which editorial writers dolefully inveigh, or it can assist and expedite administrative procedures and controls.

In order to realize the advantages that may be obtained from the proper preparation and use of forms, certain principles must be kept in mind. These may be generally expressed as the principles of appropriateness, economy, and usability.

Forms represent a point of control or movement in a procedure and must grow logically from that procedure. Too often procedures are built around forms, and the resultant unsatisfactory flow of information is inaccurately ascribed to procedural difficulties. A form that fails to provide the information necessary for effecting the procedure of which it is a part, fails on the criterion of appropriateness. Only by careful analysis of the purpose of a particular form, together with careful checks on its adequacy after it has actually been put to use, can a reliable judgment be formed on this point. The common practice of adopting the forms which another jurisdiction or agency uses often serves to compound difficulties which the forms created in the original jurisdiction.

Economy in the preparation and use of forms means the reduction of separate re-

porting to a minimum and the fullest exploitation of existing forms consistent with the principle of usability. For example, it seems that most jurisdictions could make greater use than they do of the pay roll as a reporting medium. Pay rolls are regularly recurring reports which require the posting of basic information concerning positions and employees. If, for example, a separation from service is reported on a pay roll form, much of the identifying data already appears on the pay roll, whereas the use of a separate notice form requires that all this data be supplied each time the form is used. There are, of course, limits to such a procedure, limits imposed by machine handling of pay rolls, filing requirements, necessity for prior notice of some facts, and so on. The point remains, however, that no new form should be introduced if an existing reporting medium can conveniently and effectively absorb the burden intended for it.

Forms should be usable. They can be designed for convenient use without sacrificing any other element of the reporting situation. Following the rules of good form preparation does much to make the entire reporting procedure an aid rather than a burden to management.

The problems of form preparation and use cannot be solved by the application of neat formulae. The uses and requirements of reporting are too varied and specialized for definitive and clear-cut answers to all the questions raised by reporting procedures to be worked out in advance. The applicability of general rules and the desirability of using particular techniques must be de-

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termined by the needs of the particular situation. It is hoped, however, that the following materials will prove of assistance in the preparation and use of recording and reporting instruments.

THE PREPARATION OF FORMS

THE most common reason for the failure of forms to achieve their purpose of expediting a series of related procedures lies in the fact that few organizations centralize authority for the design and duplication of forms. A variety of individuals draft and order the reproduction and distribution of forms without a review of existing recording and reporting media and without reference to the technical aspects of this activity. Variations in the concepts behind forms are as common as variations in appearance and typography. The first step in the preparation of an adequate set of forms or the revision of an existing set is the centralization of all such activities. The person or unit in charge of preparing forms must have a detailed knowledge of the organization concerned, as well as an understanding of procedural analysis, office equipment, and form requirements. Each request for the addition or revision of a form should be referred to this person or unit.

In the design of procedures and forms care should be exercised to avoid the necessity for the purchase or rental of expensive equipment in order to facilitate a single process. An example of this danger is the introduction of tabulating equipment merely to carry on one activity of an organization. In an effort to realize a reasonable return on the original investment, tabulating procedures often are extended to situations in which original procedures were adequate, or, perhaps, even more satisfactory than mechanized ones.

This is not, of course, an argument against the use of tabulating equipment which, in fact, has a definite place in the processes of many organizations. It is, rather, a plea for consistency in procedures and in the use of equipment. Changes in equipment should

be made only if they will pay their own way, either in the segment of processes for which they are originally intended or through a basic change in all procedures. Unnecessary and undesirable changes of this nature will be avoided by careful central review of suggested revisions of procedures and forms.

INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FORMS

FORMS may be classified in many ways. One helpful division is into forms used entirely within the originating agency, and forms intended for the use of outside agencies and individuals. Those that are utilized by an agency for its own purposes and are not handled by outside agencies may be more informal in nature. Such forms can be more easily changed when the occasion for doing so arises and need not be so polished in typography and design.

Another fact to be kept in mind is that all persons using internal forms are ordinarily available for consultation concerning their routing and use. Those responsible for preparing forms make the common error of assuming that all persons will possess equal knowledge of the terminology used in a particular form and the procedures of which it is a part. This may be a reasonable assumption in relation to internal forms but it does not apply to external forms. Care must be taken to pitch all forms and procedures at the level of knowledge of the user.

THE NUMBER OF FORMS

COMMON criticisms of forms relate to the number utilized by a particular organization. Agencies have "too many" or "too few" forms; forms are "overloaded" or "too specialized." Much of this criticism, it may be noted, should be directed at procedures rather than at forms, which are only the outward manifestations of a process.

It is difficult to make specific recommendations relative to the number of forms. It seems fair to say, however, that few organizations have thoroughly exploited the possibilities of combining forms; most have tended to add a new form, and thus a new

procedure, for each new recording or reporting requirement. Experience has demonstrated that a multiplicity of forms leads to inaccurate reporting; it is also considerably more expensive than the proper combining of forms.

A review of the forms used by most organizations indicates that present practice tends to err on the side of forms that are too specialized. One by-product of this is an undue waste of space; often a letter-size sheet of paper is used to report a single action, with 80 per cent of the page left completely vacant.

A functional analysis of procedures and a grouping of processes requiring similar kinds of data handled by like procedures will reveal reasonable combinations. It seems absurd, for example, to report certain data concerning an individual four times to effect the following four changes in status: change from maiden name to married name; requested change in salary; change in location of assignment; and change in home address of the employee. To repeat the maiden name of the employee (necessary for identification), name of the originating agency, dates of submission and effect of changes, signatures of officials concerned, and so on four times to accomplish the purposes outlined above is obviously time consuming and expensive. Many agencies, however, require from two to four forms to accomplish these actions.

Going to the opposite extreme is equally undesirable. It is possible, for example, to include in one form such a variety of reporting that the originating agency is confused and routing and handling are made difficult. Thus there is need for striking a nice balance between creating an array of separate forms for each particular contingency and relying on a few forms for any and all purposes. The "Change in Employee Status" form reproduced here represents, in the writer's opinion, an illustration of the maximum practicable combination of material in a single reporting device. Although the varied purposes to which the form is put

results in some crowding and multiplicity of instructions, it is felt that these defects are compensated for by the convenience of being able to report a number of concurrent personnel actions on a single transaction form.

MATERIALS FOR FORMS

BEFORE forms can be put into use, certain questions relating to size, color, stock, ink, and methods of reproduction must be decided. It seems to be the current practice to pass decisions on these matters on to printers or purchasing agents and to avoid any effort toward appropriateness or consistency. In general, failure to control these elements has two undesirable results: the purchase of higher quality paper than is necessary; and inconsistency in the typography and size of forms.

The appropriate weight and quality of paper stock for use in forms depends on several factors: the medium used in making entries—pencil, pen, or typewriter; the handling to which the form will be subjected; the filing or storage methods used; and the length of time the form must be retained.

In general, a 16-pound paper stock will be found satisfactory for most office forms, including letterheads. This weight stock is less expensive than the more commonly used 20-pound paper, and further savings may be realized because of the smaller filing space required. If it is found necessary to use a heavier stock for special types of forms, such as examination answer sheets, the lightest-weight paper which will give satisfactory results should be adopted.

Closely connected with the question of paper weight is that of paper quality. Many agencies have discovered that it is unnecessary as well as uneconomical to use a paper with a high "rag-content," even for letterheads. Although a high rag content paper presents a more luxurious appearance and wears better than a sulphite paper, a "number one" grade sulphite paper should prove adequate for letterheads. Even this quality

Preparation and Use of Personnel Forms

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Form PD-202 Payrolls indicating a changed status cannot be processed before approval of this form.	CITY OF ST. LOUIS DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL CIVIL COURTS BUILDING CHANGE IN EMPLOYEE STATUS	Complete in quadruplicate. Retain one copy. Submit three copies to the Department of Personnel.				
USE THIS FORM TO REPORT OR REQUEST						
Name Change <input type="checkbox"/> Address Change	Salary Change <input type="checkbox"/> Transfer	Demotion <input type="checkbox"/> Resignation	Leave of Absence <input type="checkbox"/> Lay-off	Suspension <input type="checkbox"/> Dismissal	Death <input type="checkbox"/> Fine	Certification after Working Test <input type="checkbox"/> End of Temporary Appointment
1. Name of Employee:		2. Present Class Title:		3. Present Civil Service Status of Employee: <input type="checkbox"/> Permanent <input type="checkbox"/> Emergency <input type="checkbox"/> Provisional <input type="checkbox"/> Probationary <input type="checkbox"/> Transient <input type="checkbox"/> Limited Term		
4. Agency and Organization Unit:		5. Transaction Number:		6. Place of Work:		7. Effective Date
All changes in employee status must be explained by suitable entries in the items below. The appointing authority submitting this form must sign in item 23 in every case						
Check Action	Substantiating Information for Change					
<input type="checkbox"/> Name and/or Address Change <input type="checkbox"/> Salary Change <input type="checkbox"/> Certification After Probation <input type="checkbox"/> Separation From Pay Roll	7. Change to: Name _____ Address _____					
	8. Present cash rate: 9. Present maint. value: 10. Proposed cash rate: 11. Proposed maint. value: 12. Date last sal. change:					
	I certify that the above-named employee has successfully completed his or her working test period, and I recommend that he or she receive full civil service status.					
	Check <input type="checkbox"/> Death (use items 13, 14, 15) <input type="checkbox"/> Leave of absence (use items 13, 14, 15, 17) <input type="checkbox"/> Lay off (use items 13, 14, 15, 16) one: <input type="checkbox"/> Dismissal (use items 13, 14, 15, 16) <input type="checkbox"/> Resignation (use items 13, 14, 15) <input type="checkbox"/> End of Temporary Appointment (use items 14, 15, 16) <input type="checkbox"/> Layoff (use items 13, 14, 15, 16) <input type="checkbox"/> Fine (use items 13, 14, 15)					
	13. NOTE: In all cases of Suspension, Dismissal, Fine or Lay Off, the appointing authority must indicate below the details of and reasons for the action and must notify the employee of the action being taken. No reasons are required for Dismissals during the working test period. In all cases of Death give cause of death below. If more space is needed use the back of this form. In all cases of Resignation or Request for Leave, the employee must give the reasons for the action and sign below.					
Employee's signature (for Resignation or Request for Leave)						
14. Last day at work:		15. Last day on payroll:		16. Method and date of notice to employee Suspension, Dismissal, Fine, Layoff:		17. Length of Leave or Suspension: From _____ To _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Transfer or Demotion		To initiate a Transfer or Demotion, describe the position to be filled in the space below and fill in items 18 and 19. In all cases of Transfer, obtain the necessary signatures in items 20 and 21. In all cases of Demotion, give the reasons therefore in the space ABOVE under separations and fill in item 16. If more space is needed, use the back of this form.				
Duties to be performed in new position:						
18. Name and Title of Former Incumbent of Position, if any:			19. Names and Titles of Employees doing similar work to the position described above:			
20. Signature of Employee: (for Transfer)			21. Signature, Title and Agency of New Appointing Authority: (for Transfer)			
22. Name and Title of Appointing Authority submitting this form:			23. Signature:		24. Date of Submission	
25. For Use of C. S. Dept. <input type="checkbox"/> Approved <input type="checkbox"/> Disapproved <input type="checkbox"/> Transmitted to Comptroller			Director of D. P., by:	Date:	Noted, Roster, by:	Date:

"CHANGE IN EMPLOYEE STATUS" FORM—CITY OF ST. LOUIS

paper is not needed for most office forms. It appears that, except in unusual cases, a "number four" sulphite paper will prove satisfactory for all purposes except letterheads.

This discussion of paper quality refers, of course, to papers used in printed or offset forms. Mimeograph duplication requires an especially absorbent paper, to which the above remarks on paper quality are not pertinent. Mimeograph paper should, however, be as light in weight as is consistent with the nature of its use—that is, whether it is to be printed on both sides, whether the recording is to be done in ink, pencil, or typewriter, and so on.

It might appear unnecessary to urge that all forms be designed to cut from basic paper sizes without waste, but a survey of the printed material of public agencies indicates that this suggestion should be made. In general, letter-size paper is better than odd sizes or legal size paper, both from the point of view of original economy and ultimate filing. However, it may be well to consider ordering approximately half the letterheads, note paper, and second sheets in a short or half size. Studies have indicated that approximately this proportion of governmental correspondence can be efficiently written on such small-size sheets. Envelope sizes should be standardized and the use of window envelopes for both correspondence and forms should be encouraged wherever it will reduce work.

IDENTIFICATION OF FORMS

IT WOULD seem that mention of the need for clear identification of forms would be unnecessary. Yet, an examination of forms from various agencies reveals that this point is often given inadequate attention. Ideally, each form should contain two-fold identification: a title that is adequately descriptive and sufficiently prominent to facilitate quick identification; and a code number that relates the particular form to an over-all scheme for coding the agency's forms. The code number is not only a safeguard against

confusion of forms that may be somewhat similar in title or appearance, but it also serves as a handy abbreviation for the full title of the form in dealings among those who have occasion to use it or refer to it in correspondence.

Each form should also contain the name and address of the agency. This does not apply with the same force to forms that are purely internal as it does to those going outside the office. The prominence of this information should be subordinated to the title of the form, however, since the latter is the more important from the viewpoint of everyday use.

The practice of using a variety of colors is to be encouraged, for it expedites identification and sorting. Experience has shown that both the originating and the processing agencies can handle forms more expeditiously if they are distinguished by color. Certain warnings may be given, however, concerning the use of colored forms. Colors should be carefully chosen so that they do not interfere with legibility of the printed or typewritten material. Colors should be as light as possible, and they should be limited to a few basic hues to avoid confusion.

The use of dark brown rather than black ink for printing the text of the form will make typewritten entries stand out. This device is particularly useful in the case of application forms, where large quantities of the form must be scanned for information. Discretion should be exercised in using colored inks on mimeographed or other office-duplicated material because of the time consumed in changing from one color to another.

It is generally unnecessary to indicate first, second, or third copies of forms, or to print on them designations such as "Controller's Copy" or "Departmental Copy." This practice increases the expense of printing and usually adds little or nothing to the accuracy of routing. Finally it is suggested that forms be made up into pads of fifty copies each for ease of distribution, storage, and use.

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THE USE OF FORMS

FORMS are prepared for use and should, therefore, be designed to make possible effective utilization. The purposes, nature, and handling of forms must be explained to those who originate and to those who receive and process them. Thus the procedures of which forms are a part should be reduced to writing. Only by this action can confusion be avoided on questions of routing, number of copies required, and similar matters. However, the necessity for detailed manuals of procedures has often been overemphasized; such manuals have frequently been made necessary by the inadequacies of the forms and procedures themselves. Manuals prepared in great detail are likely to be difficult to use and, by discouraging reference, may defeat their own purposes.

An interesting aid to the use of a set of personnel transaction forms is found in the Minnesota "Index to Personnel Transaction Forms," reproduced here. Although this index does not give detailed information on procedures or routing, it does indicate the appropriate device to use for particular actions. In addition, the individual Minnesota forms carry their own instructions in some detail. The placing of instructions on forms seems to work well in practice and is recommended. Such instructions should be concise and should not include lengthy quotations from laws, rules, or procedures.

Satisfactory procedures will contain provisions for the control and routing of forms. It should be possible to tell at any given time just where a previously submitted form is, both as regards processing and physical location. In large agencies, this will require setting up an informal journal or card form on which the receipt and subsequent handling of forms may be noted. Any such controls should be as simple as possible so that processing is not delayed by too-frequent or too-involved controls. Form routing should be economical: the physical travel of a form should be reduced to a minimum and forms should be handled by an individual or unit only once during processing.

THE number of copies of a particular form which should be submitted by an originating agency depends upon the number of persons or agencies involved in the processing. If the form is utilized as a report rather than as a request for approval of a contemplated action, two copies will suffice in many instances. One of the copies would be retained by the originating agency; the other would be used by the personnel agency to correct its records. After being used, this second copy might be filed in a functional file or in an employee folder. However, if the report is to be circulated to a fiscal agency, a third copy may be necessary, and if a copy must be given to the employee concerned a fourth copy may be needed.

Unnecessary extra copies of forms represent waste and cause resentment. The number of copies should not be set arbitrarily, and ingenuity should be exercised in reducing the number to a minimum. For example, the use of control records may reduce the number of copies needed by maintaining a record of the form in the personnel agency while the form itself, say, is in the hands of the fiscal agency. On the other hand, enthusiasm for cutting down on this phase of paper work should not be permitted to negate the purpose of the form by failure to place a needed copy of a report or request with the proper agencies or individuals. If speed of clearance is a major consideration, and if extra copies will permit concurrent rather than sequential clearance, the need for extra copies is clearly indicated.

THE FILING OF FORMS

AFTER a form has served its primary purposes, some disposition must be made of it. It is sometimes possible to make forms serve additional needs of an agency by analysis of the information contained on them and consideration of agency information needs. For example, applications for examination can be placed in alphabetic order to serve as a file of all persons who have applied for examinations, obviating the necessity for a separate file for this purpose. This

CS 7		STATE OF MINNESOTA CIVIL SERVICE DEPARTMENT INDEX TO PERSONNEL TRANSACTION FORMS			June, 1940
Action	Specific Transaction Involved	Handled by:		Refer to Civil Serv Rule Number	
Form No.	Color	Letter			
Requisition and Appointment	Original appointment	CS-2	Green	10	
	Provisional appointment	CS-3	Blue	11.1	
	Emergency appointment	CS-3	Blue	11.2	
	Unclassified appointment	CS-3	Blue	3.5	
	Reinstatement by order of the Board		x	24.3	
	Exceptional appointment		x		
	Appointment following expiration of leave of absence		x	18.8	
Certification	Certification of Eligibles	CS-2	Green	15	
	Certification following probation	CS-4	Pink	15.5	
Change in Position	Transfer	CS-6	Golden rod	8	
	Demotion	CS-6	Golden rod	7	
	Promotion	CS-2	Green	9	
Personal Data Change	Name change	CS-4	Pink		
	Address change	CS-4	Pink		
	Beneficiary information change	CS-4	Pink		
Salary	Salary increase	CS-4	Pink	19.2	
	Salary decrease	CS-4	Pink	19.3	
Separation	Termination by certification	CS-2	Green	15.5	
	Death	CS-5	Yellow		
	Dismissal - Discharge	CS-5	Yellow	24	
	Resignation	CS-5	Yellow	20	
	Layoff	CS-5	Yellow	22	
	Leave of absence without pay	CS-5	Yellow	18.8	
	Expiration of Limited Term Appointment	CS-5	Yellow	11.1	
	Retirement	CS-5	Yellow	23	
	Extension of retirement date		x		
	Suspension	CS-5	Yellow	21	
Reinstatement	Absence without leave		x	18.9	
	Reinstatement after resignation		x	20.2	
Leaves with Pay	Military leave	Service Rating Form		18.11	
	Sick leave	Service Rating Form		18.7	
	Annual leave	Service Rating Form		18.4	

"INDEX TO PERSONNEL TRANSACTION FORMS"—STATE OF MINNESOTA

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particular example has certain apparent disadvantages inherent in it, but it illustrates the point. Forms filed functionally, that is, by purpose, may be used to obtain statistical information for annual or special reports.

As a general rule, however, files should be kept to a minimum and filing alphabetically by employee name is preferable to functional filing. All personnel transactions relate to a specific employee, and this common denominator furnishes a convenient method of determining ultimate filing. Well-designed transaction forms also relate each action to one employee, thus making filing by employee relatively efficient because of the limited need for cross-referencing.¹

Filing order is an important factor in filing efficiency. Files which duplicate material—such as the roster card file and the employee folder file used by many agencies—should not be arranged in the same order. If the roster card is filed in organization order or in pay roll order for pay roll checking purposes, the employee folders should be filed in straight alphabetic order so that records of individual employees may be located without first having to discover their organizational affiliations and without the need for a separate file for this purpose.

The cost of setting up and maintaining a new file is great and new files should be adopted only after careful consideration. If at all possible, some combination of presently maintained files should be made to avoid initiating new ones. The criterion for new files should be necessity rather than minor convenience or novelty.

A word may be said at this point concerning visible files, slotted and punched card files, and similar devices and systems that are available commercially. It is easy for an office manager to succumb to the arguments for one or another of these special files. It should be remembered, however, that filing in patented files, or the use of patented cards

adaptable for mechanical sorting, costs from two to five times as much as filing ordinary cards in standard files.

Although the cost of a proposed installation should not be allowed to transcend all other considerations, the benefits to be derived should be demonstrable and of substantial proportions before the element of cost is over-balanced. Visible filing pays for itself only if the measured incidence of reference is high, and few personnel records have a high incidence of reference. Also, cards adapted to mechanical sorting invite overloading. It is often the case that considerable portions of the data entered on the cards are punched or slotted into them merely because it can be done, not because it is needed for operations or even for legitimate statistical work or research. Often these overloaded cards present such a problem of maintenance that the punching or slotting is abandoned.

It is well to consult persons who have had experience with special cards used for mechanical sorting or printing before setting up procedures based on such equipment. In this way the proposed installation can be tested in advance, and the experience of prior use may point to a need for modifications in forms, equipment, or procedures.

CONCLUSION

THE preparation and use of forms has been generally underemphasized by administrative organizations, including personnel agencies. Efficient forms and procedures free administrators and technicians from routine paper work and permit the clerical work to be done by those who do it best. The advantages in efficiency and good will to be gained from improvement in the forms and procedures of an organization are so great that this activity deserves the applied ingenuity of the best workers in the fields of office management and organizational planning. With increased emphasis on this phase of management, a uniform methodology may be developed which will prove of benefit to all agencies.

¹An exception to this single employee form is often found in requisition and appointment forms which may apply to a number of individuals. In such cases, functional filing and cross-referencing by form number may be found the most desirable practice.

Management-Employee Boards as Judicial Bodies

JOHN A. OVERHOLT

EMPLOYEE participation in the settlement of management problems in the field of public administration is progressing from the experimental stage to a standard practice. As a general rule, boards and committees with employee membership are rather informal in origin, with informal methods of proceeding, and with only advisory or recommendatory authority. Their recommendations must stand or fall on the basis of their logic or expediency as it appeals to those who have the authority and must bear the responsibility for taking action.

In the light of these developments, it is appropriate to examine the federal experience of a government-wide system of efficiency rating boards of review in which employee participation is recognized equally with management participation. These boards are established with full statutory authority; they exercise judicial as well as administrative functions, and they are armed with the power of final decision. They have been in operation since September 15, 1941, when the first boards of review were commissioned to consider and decide efficiency rating appeals. During a year and a half of the most strenuous employment period in our national life, these boards have had a steady and reassuring influence. They may be destined for more important roles in the years to come. Their history must include a review of the facts and circumstances which influenced their authorization and establishment.

JOHN A. OVERHOLT is Chief, Efficiency Ratings Administration Section, United States Civil Service Commission.

EFFICIENCY ratings are a primary factor in personnel administration in the federal government. Under basic law they control salary adjustments, both as to increases and decreases, within pay ranges authorized for all types of positions under the Classification Act. They are a part of the employee's record in determining eligibility for promotion to higher-grade assignments. They are a controlling factor in reductions in force. In the declining years of an employee's service, they may be a basis for recommending involuntary retirement.

Although based partially on production and error records where such records are available, efficiency ratings rest primarily on the basis of the personal judgment of supervisors. This judgment is frequently challenged by employees, and until the new boards of review were established the only course of appeal was through supervisors or to administrative officers. These latter individuals were naturally constrained to support the decisions of such supervisors unless conclusively demonstrated to be in error. This produced a general feeling of dissatisfaction with efficiency ratings in a great many cases.

Further dissatisfaction grew out of different rating practices in different departments and agencies. All were required to use a uniform system, at least in the departmental headquarters offices in Washington; but the rating plan had no provision for effective interdepartmental coordination. It was disconcerting to an employee with a "Good" efficiency rating to find, in applying for transfer to another agency which rated

more generously, that a "Good" efficiency rating was not considered to be good.

Prior to the enactment of the uniform salary advancement law in 1941, salary increases earned by efficiency ratings in many departments and agencies were frequently passed over because of stringent appropriations. It was only natural, therefore, that many cases arose where supervisors and administrators adopted a lackadaisical attitude toward efficiency ratings which "didn't mean anything, anyway."

CREATION OF REVIEW BOARDS

RESPONDING to the ever-growing demand that appropriate tribunals be established, with genuine employee participation, to consider and decide efficiency rating appeals on a fair and uniform basis, the new boards of review were authorized in the Ramspeck Act of November 26, 1940.¹ Regulations governing the establishment and operation of boards of review were to be prescribed by the Civil Service Commission with the approval of the President, but the basic law laid down seven fundamental requirements as follows:

1. Boards are to have three members, one member being designated by management, one member by the employees, and a third member, the chairman, designated by the Civil Service Commission.

2. All employees aggrieved by their efficiency ratings are to have the absolute right to appeal to appropriate boards of review.

3. Appealing employees are to have the absolute right to have representatives to aid them in prosecuting their appeals.

4. Appealing employees and their representatives, and the representatives of the departments and agencies concerned, are to have absolute right to hear or examine, and reply to, all evidence concerning the efficiency ratings appealed.

5. Decisions of boards of review are to be based exclusively on merits of efficiency ratings.

6. Boards of review are to have complete independence in deciding appeals under consideration.

7. Decisions of boards of review are to be binding on all parties.

Since the act authorizing boards of review was approved as an amendment to the Classification Act,² it was originally operative only with respect to employees in the departmental service in Washington. Before any boards of review were actually commissioned, however, the Mead-Ramspeck Act of August 1, 1941,³ extended the coverage of the efficiency rating provisions of the Classification Act, as nearly as practicable, to all employees occupying positions within the compensation schedules of the Classification Act. By this amendment, the jurisdiction of efficiency rating boards of review was extended, as nearly as practicable, to employees in the field services.

Regulations had to be formulated and approved by the President before any boards of review could be established. Although the law had outlined the basic principles governing the establishment and operation of boards of review, a host of difficult problems required solution before regulations could be issued. What guide lines should be established to determine the number of boards of review and to define the jurisdiction of such boards? Should the boards have fixed terms of office? How should the employee member of each board be selected? Should there be any qualification restrictions for membership on boards of review? What time limits should be established for appeals? What degree of formalized procedure should be followed in the conduct of hearings? Should oral hearings be recorded stenographically? How should decisions be issued? How could the benefits of the appeals procedure be extended to employees in the field services, as nearly as practicable? These were typical of the numerous questions of organization, policy, and procedure calling for answers.

¹ 42 Stat. 1490.

² 55 Stat. 613.

These questions were of concern to management and employees alike, and they were therefore discussed thoroughly with representatives of numerous employee organizations and with the Council of Personnel Administration, composed of directors of personnel representing all departments and independent agencies of the federal government. Substantial accord was reached with respect to all of these problems. The first regulations were issued on May 1, 1941,⁴ and were amplified by the current regulations promulgated on October 9, 1942.⁵

In preparing regulations which could be issued only with the approval of the President, it seemed wise to adhere to rather broad rules which could be implemented by procedural instructions⁶ issued by the Civil Service Commission with less formality. For example, the regulations approved by the President required that the employee member and alternate employee members be designated by election by the employees. The further details of the election procedure are embodied in procedural instructions.

Since the number of boards of review in any department or independent agency depends in a large measure upon the organizational structure and the number of employees, it was deemed advisable to permit the head of each department and agency to determine the number and jurisdiction of boards of review. The basic requirement that the jurisdiction of each board of review should be specific and exclusive of that of any other board of review was imposed. By the regulations the determination of the number and jurisdiction of boards of review was made subject to the approval of the Civil Service Commission in order that a check might be made on the possible overlapping of jurisdiction.

In line with the concept that the boards of review should function as independent judicial bodies, it was decided that each board

would be established for a term of office expiring with the fiscal year during which it was created. This was subsequently modified to permit the extension of a board of review or the term of any of its members until his successor was elected or designated in order that there might be no lapse of time during which an employee would not have a board of review to which he could make an appeal.

ONE of the most perplexing questions presented for solution in the regulations was the manner of the selection of the employee member. Obviously the employee member should not be chosen by the head of the department or agency, for that would tend to deprive the board of the confidence of the employees entitled to appeal. Since there is a multiplicity of employee unions in the federal service, and since these unions seldom represent more than a minority of the total number of employees in any organization, it was not feasible to permit employee unions to elect employee members of boards of review. The regulations provided, therefore, that the employee member should be elected in such manner as should be prescribed by the Civil Service Commission. Under this authorization the Commission evolved a plan whereby employee members and alternate members would be chosen at elections conducted under the supervision of an employee election committee named for that purpose for each board of review.

Each employee election committee is named by the head of the particular department or agency subject to the approval of the Civil Service Commission, and the employees are notified of their right to challenge any proposed member of the employee election committee by complaint directly to the Civil Service Commission. If any such complaint is substantiated, a new member is designated by the head of a department or agency with due notice to employees of their opportunity to challenge, as in the case of the original designation. After a waiting period of one week, the Commission approves the employee election committee in

⁴ Executive Order No. 8748.

⁵ Executive Order No. 9252.

⁶ Civil Service Commission Departmental Circular No. 265 (Revised) issued October 22, 1942, and Supplement No. 1, issued October 27, 1942.

the absence of challenges, or at such future time as an acceptable committee is formed. The committee then proceeds to receive nominations, conduct secret ballot elections, and report the results both to the department or agency and to the Civil Service Commission.

By its very nature, every board of review must have three members to constitute a quorum, and some provision was therefore necessary to permit a board to function in the absence or incapacity of a member to serve, or when one of the members had participated in the making of an efficiency rating that is under appeal. In order to meet such contingencies, one or two alternate members were authorized for each principal member, to be selected in the same manner as the principal member.

MEMBERSHIP QUALIFICATIONS

MEMBERSHIP qualifications provided a basis for rather interesting discussions. Since the evidence on efficiency ratings might involve confidential information in some cases, it was felt unwise to permit membership on boards of review by persons other than those employed in the government service who are bound by their oaths of office and who appreciate the significance of their responsibilities.

It was further felt that membership on boards of review serving departments and offices of the executive branch of the government should be restricted to officers and employees in the executive branch, and it was so provided in the regulations. Since there are some boards of review serving agencies not in the executive branch of the government, the exception was made that the department members, employee members, and alternates to such members of such boards should be chosen from officers and employees in the particular branch of government served.

In this connection, it is interesting to note that many suggestions were received as to restrictive qualifications for employee members. Some employees wanted employee

membership on boards of review restricted to employees in lower-grade positions who had no supervisory responsibility. Some other employees wanted employee membership on boards of review restricted to employees with substantial periods of service combined with advancement to higher-grade positions. In solving this question, it was felt that the best rule was to let the employees themselves have a democratic form of election to determine which of their number should be chosen as employee members and alternate employee members on their own board of review.

Certificates of membership are issued by the Civil Service Commission to all of the members and alternate members of boards of review. As a general rule, a brief but appropriate ceremony is held at the organization meeting of each board. On this occasion the membership certificates are handed to the members and alternate members by one of the Commissioners of the Civil Service Commission or by a special representative of the Commission, and the judicial character of the boards of review is stressed in a few well-chosen remarks.

APPEALS AND HEARINGS

AN ABSOLUTE right of appeal is assured in the enabling act authorizing the establishment of boards of review, but a reasonable time limitation was deemed to be permissible in the regulations. As a general rule, the regulations require that appeals be submitted within 90 days of the time that employees receive notices of their efficiency ratings; but boards of review may waive this requirement for good and sufficient reasons in individual cases. Among the reasons justifying the waiving of time restrictions are inability to appeal during the 90-day period, exhaustion of the 90-day period by administrative negotiations which eventually proved to be unsuccessful, and discovery of evidence not available during the 90-day period.

Although the law mentioned no grounds on which an efficiency rating can come be-

fore a board of review except by appeal, it was known that there might be some cases where an employee might hesitate to appeal because of shyness or fear of reprisal. It was accordingly provided in the regulations that with respect to efficiency ratings which jeopardized the salary or position of an employee, the Commission could certify such ratings to boards of review for consideration in the same manner as if appealed by the employee.

Several considerations entered into the discussions concerning the provisions in the regulations relative to the formalities of hearings. For example, it was impossible to foresee what the volume of work would be, and it was deemed wise to eliminate all unnecessary formality to expedite the work of the boards of review. Then, too, it was believed that excessive formality would tend to intimidate appellants and lead to the belief that decisions might turn on technicalities instead of the merits of the cases presented. There was also the possibility that excessive formality, with finely drawn and contested issues, might tend to increase rather than ameliorate strained conditions between supervisors and their employees. Because of considerations such as these, the regulations provided that hearings on appeals should be conducted on a basis as informal as possible and yet permit the presentation of all the information necessary to ascertain the correct rating.

AS A general rule, it is believed that appeals can be considered most advantageously through the medium of oral hearings in those cases wherein the essential disclosure of all evidence to all parties, with an opportunity for reply, can be accomplished with a minimum of time and effort. Circumstances frequently arise, however, which make it impossible to conduct an oral hearing. For example, an appellant or essential witnesses may be out of the city and cannot reasonably be required to incur the time loss and travel expense involved in attending an oral hearing. Provision is therefore

made in the regulations for a waiver of oral hearing and consideration on the basis of evidence submitted in writing. In such cases copies of all evidence in writing must be supplied to all parties, with an opportunity to submit written evidence in reply.

Extending the benefits of efficiency rating appeal procedures to employees in the field services required some modifications. Elections of employee members of boards of review in thousands of field stations are impracticable, at least in war time. Extensive travel, either of appellants and witnesses to Washington or of board members to field stations, cannot be authorized when transportation facilities are overtaxed by national defense requirements. Both of these difficulties were overcome by permitting appeals from field employees to be submitted to departmental boards of review for adjudication on the basis of written evidence. It is also provided that, where necessary, boards of review may secure the aid of impartial investigators who will get all pertinent information at the field station and render a written report with copies to all parties.

Stenographic transcripts of efficiency rating appeal hearings are expensive luxuries, and frequently it is more advantageous that no verbatim record be kept of the testimony presented at such hearings. On the other hand, there are a few cases where stenographic records might be beneficial to both the government and the employee who appeals. The regulations provide that no hearings shall be reported stenographically unless the board by unanimous vote decides that such action is necessary to the best interests of the parties concerned.

Decisions of boards of review must of necessity show whether the appealed rating is sustained, and if changed, to what extent. Since it is just as important to point out to supervisors and administrators wherein ratings are in error as it is to certify the fact that they are in error, the regulations require that decisions be supported by summary statements of the facts on which such decisions are based.

PROBLEMS OF PROCEDURE

NUMEROUS problems in the conduct of hearings have been encountered by the boards of review. Should hearings be open to the general public or should attendance be restricted to the parties and their witnesses? Should all witnesses be present throughout the hearings or should witnesses be excluded except when presenting evidence? Are co-workers eligible to present evidence concerning performance? Are character witnesses outside of the government service eligible to testify? Most of these problems have been solved by the boards themselves, according to the circumstances of particular cases.

Board of review hearings are regular methods of government business. They are not star chamber proceedings, nor should they be made into spectacles for the benefit of any party to an appeal. As a general rule, they are open to everyone who has a legitimate right to witness the transaction of any public business. All parties are entitled to be present, of course. Other government employees who may wish to see how appeal hearings are conducted are permitted to attend. Representatives of employee organizations may attend hearings if they wish to do so. No particular reason has arisen for barring representatives of the press. On the other hand, there have been a few cases in which the interests of all were best served by closed hearings. It was deemed advisable to make no regulation on this subject but to let each board of review make its own determination in each case. The wisdom of this decision has been proved beyond doubt. There have been a few closed hearings and many open hearings, but no spectacles.

Since time is an important element to all government workers, time has been conserved in some cases by having all witnesses come in and develop the evidence by a type of round-table discussion. In other cases, time has been saved by having witnesses come in singly as needed and excusing them when they had presented their testimony. In some cases there is the danger that some

witnesses may influence others, and in other cases this danger is negligible. The decision is left to the boards of review, and experience has demonstrated the wisdom of this course.

Those who are charged with supervisory or review responsibility are usually the best witnesses as to the facts of work performance. Sometimes supervisors or reviewers are not available at the time of the hearings and other evidence must be developed. Occasionally, bias or prejudice is alleged, and co-workers can shed light on these points. If the duties of an appellant involve contacts with persons outside the government service, such persons may provide evidence as to certain phases of work performance. Character witnesses who have no personal knowledge of the appellant's work performance during the period under review can be of little or no help in determining the merits of his efficiency rating. Although boards of review are required to receive all pertinent evidence offered by appellants and by the departments or agencies appealed against, they need not take time to hear irrelevant evidence. They have a great deal of latitude to decide what evidence is pertinent and the weight to be given to evidence received.

WITH such wide discretionary power in their hands, how do boards of review achieve uniformity? Ever since the first boards of review were established, a series of weekly conferences has been held at which chairmen and alternate chairmen discussed policy and procedural questions. These conferences are held in the office of the Chief of the Efficiency Ratings Administration Section (a unit in the Civil Service Commission) which initiates the regulations and procedural instructions governing the operations of boards of review. In general, the chairmen and alternate chairmen exchange viewpoints at these conferences and receive suggestions from the section chief. Individual problems are discussed in the light of the law, the regulations, the public interest generally, and the best interests of employees. Mutually agreeable solutions to all

problems are reached at these conferences and are thereafter applied in the proceedings of all boards of review.

In addition to these conferences, the Efficiency Ratings Administration Section maintains an advisory service available to all members of boards of review, appellants or prospective appellants, employee representatives and department representatives, and all others concerned with the work of boards of review. This advisory service is rendered with the distinct understanding that decisions in appealed cases are to be made by the boards of review and by no other authority. Anyone can get advice, but only the boards can make decisions. When a board of review has made and published a decision, it is binding on all parties.

Rehearings may be requested by either party to a case on the ground that new evidence has been discovered, not previously available, that is of sufficient significance to alter the decision of the board of review. Since there is no other method for obtaining reconsideration of the decision of a board of review, the provision for rehearings has made it possible to give further consideration to cases where substantial new evidence has become available since the close of the hearing.

THE BOARDS IN ACTION

THE boards of review have been in operation for about a year and a half. Up to February 1, 1943, a total of 843 efficiency rating appeals had been filed, of which 294 were still pending. What can we learn from the 549 cases which the boards of review disposed of during this period?

Decisions have been rendered on 367 cases; in 196, or 53 per cent, the ratings were increased; in 165, or 45 per cent, the ratings were sustained; and in 6, or 2 per cent, the ratings were lowered. This indicates that there was a definite need for the appellate procedure to correct efficiency rating errors. It also indicates that the boards are conscious of their responsibility for correcting all errors discovered in the ratings—errors calling

for lowering as well as raising ratings.

During the period up to February 1, 1943, a total of 182 appeals were cancelled or withdrawn by the appellants before decisions had been rendered. In the majority of these cases, further consideration was given to the appellants' efficiency ratings by their supervisors and by higher administrative officers, and satisfactory adjustments were made or explanations given that made adjudication of the appeals unnecessary.

The voting records of the boards of review are very significant as indicating that, without exception, all members have accepted their judicial responsibilities seriously. Although there have been differences of opinion in a great many cases at the conclusion of the hearings, in an overwhelming majority of cases the decisions after full discussion have been unanimous. Only 20 out of 367 cases were decided by votes of 2 to 1, and of these, 8 ratings were increased and 12 were sustained. All of the cases in which ratings were lowered were decided by unanimous votes. These figures show that in at least 96 per cent of the 202 cases where the department's rating was changed, the department member voted for the change; and that in at least 92 per cent of the 171 cases decided adversely to the appellants, the employee member voted for such action.

Can we judge the value of boards of review by the number of appeals? Or by the proportion of successful appeals? No. The availability of a remedy is frequently more successful than the application of the remedy. The real purpose of boards of review is to secure better efficiency ratings and to inspire greater confidence in efficiency ratings. If this purpose is substantially achieved, the efficiency ratings will be made so carefully and explained so thoroughly to employees that no appeals will be received except in a few cases where there is a forlorn hope that the board of review may increase a rating that may otherwise cause a loss of salary or position. When this ideal condition arrives, the number of ratings changed as the result of appeal will be negligible. Experi-

ence does not indicate that this goal will be reached in the near future, if ever. It is well to keep in mind, however, that statistics as to appeals filed and ratings changed are not reliable guides as to the necessity for appellate boards of review.

By and large, it is a part of human nature to proceed more carefully on matters subject to appellate review than with respect to matters which are not subject to appeal. Herein lies the greatest advantage of boards of review. Since the establishment of the boards of review, more attention is given to efficiency ratings than ever before. Supervisors and administrators are not only giving more consideration to efficiency ratings in their initial preparation but are more disposed to give careful consideration to cases of dissatisfaction with efficiency ratings. This is as it should be. Boards of review are courts of last resort; and efficiency rating grievances, like other grievances, should be adjusted administratively wherever possible.

DOES the existence of boards of review tend to produce higher efficiency ratings in order to reduce the number of appeals? This question cannot be answered at this time. Perhaps there are some supervisors and administrators who think that uniformly high efficiency ratings will solve the appeal problem. They will soon learn, however, that unduly generous ratings will not solve the problem of morale. If the indifferent worker is given a rating as high as that awarded the outstanding worker, there may be no appeals but there will be a lack of incentive, and the work of the whole group will suffer. The results of unduly generous rating may not be immediately apparent, but they are none the less inevitable. There is no substitute for honesty and courage in the preparation of efficiency ratings or in any other responsible function of government administration.

Higher efficiency ratings may be a very proper result of the boards of review in many cases. A better knowledge by employees of the work expected of them will make them more efficient in accomplishing their daily tasks. Then, too, a better appreciation of efficiency ratings by supervisors will result in more accurate appraisals of work performance. If these effects continue to spread throughout the government service, the value of efficiency rating boards of review may be demonstrated by better work, appropriately recognized, which will benefit not only the government workers, but the public interest generally.

Exchanges of viewpoints between employees and management in the consideration of efficiency rating appeals is an incidental benefit of the new plan. Management theories in the field of employee relations are exposed to the practical tests of application in specific problem cases. Employees sitting on boards of review are faced with the responsibility of making important decisions. Representatives of both management and employees are impressed with the significance of recognizing all viewpoints in an impartial judicial manner. The improved working relations that flow from these meetings may be more valuable than any of the decisions on rating appeals.

There is still much to be learned in management-employee collaboration, but efficiency rating boards of review have made a distinct contribution. They have demonstrated that, under appropriate regulations, representatives of employees and of management can express independent viewpoints and then cooperate in reaching impartial decisions. This experience in the adjudication of efficiency rating appeals may point the way to similar management-employee participation in solving other problems in employee relations in the public service.

COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

Constitutionality—Class Legislation Based on Population of Cities—Statute Applying to Local Police Forces. The Pennsylvania statute setting up a comprehensive civil service system for police employees in boroughs, towns, and first class townships, specifically applies only to those municipalities having three or more paid police officers. It was urged that this constituted special legislation in violation of the state constitutional restrictions, and that a classification of cities, to be constitutionally "general in nature," must be based on population. *Haverford v. Sagle*, 28 Atl. (2d) 786 (Pa.).

The court held that the legislature has the right, in regulating a particular class, to exclude members of the class to whom the act can have no useful application. The court said:

A township having one or two or no police officers would be justified in objecting strenuously to the expense and inconvenience of maintaining a complete system of police civil service which would have no function to perform. This exception in the legislation does not constitute a classification of boroughs, towns, and first class townships. The Act is general in both purpose and scope. The exception is reasonable and necessary, and is based on considerations as plain as they are sound.

The familiar argument was raised that the statute creates unconstitutional special privileges, available only to police force members in municipalities having a force of more than three members. "The obvious answer is that such differences always happen whenever legislation regulating municipal affairs is made effective in certain municipalities and not in others," stated the court. "If such an argument were sound, civil service could never have been inaugurated unless it were done in every city, town, borough and township in the Common-

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wealth at the same time. The patent unreasonableness of such a suggestion destroys it."

Another attack on the same law was considered in *Bragdon v. Ries*, 29 Atl. (2d) 40 (Pa.). The law specifically provided that it shall apply to boroughs only "while sections 1125, 1127 and 1128 as now contained in the 'General Borough Act' are in force. . ." The mentioned sections give to the borough council and burgess the power of appointment, suspension, and removal of borough police members. It was contended that the effect of the civil service law was to transfer those powers to the civil service commission, with the result that the aforementioned sections no longer applied to boroughs, so that the civil service act, by its own terms, could not apply. The court dismissed the issue along familiar and settled civil service principles. A civil service statute does not confer rights of appointment and removal on the commission. As the court pointed out, "The power of council to appoint and remove remains but with the prescribed limitations that appointment can be made only from a list furnished by the civil service commission. . . ."

Pay Schedules—Discretionary Right of Department to Fix Salaries of Subordinates Within Grades. In *Murphy v. Delaney*, 39 N. Y. S. (2d) 58, the New York Supreme Court considered the discretionary right of administrative agencies to fix rates of pay for civil service employees. The petitioner, an employee of the New York City Board of Transportation, objected that other employees within the same grade and performing similar duties were receiving higher rates of pay. He sought to have his pay rate equalized with the others. The court denied the application. Stated the court:

The establishment of maximum and minimum rates of compensation for a particular classification or title in

the civil service is vested in the sound discretion of the Board of Transportation and the Civil Service Commission of the City of New York. It is a method of compensation generally employed in the civil service and not uncommon in private employment. It is intended to facilitate adjustments necessitated by economic requirements and the needs of the service. That it may result in the payment of different rates of wages within the same classification or title of service is inherent in any flexible system of compensation which takes account of seniority of service, promotions and other employment factors.

So long as the rate of pay is within the bounds of the maximum and minimum rates provided in the schedule applicable to the particular classification of employees, there is no justification in the claim that the failure to pay all employees within that classification the maximum rate is discriminatory, arbitrary or capricious.

Promotions—Status of Employees Illegally Promoted in Case of Lay-offs. In *Cornehl v. Kern*, 285 N. Y. 777, 34 N. E. (2d) 918, it was held that appointments made from a city-wide promotion list under the New York law were invalid. In *Waten v. Buck*, 38 N. Y. S. (2d) 377 (App. Div.), the court, relying on the *Cornehl* decision, ruled it improper to suspend inspectors of masonry and carpentry in the New York City Board of Education while at the same time retaining inspectors who had been appointed from a city-wide promotion list. "It is clear that the inspectors who were appointed in 1938 were appointed from an invalid promotion list," stated the court. "It must be obvious, therefore, that petitioners who hold their positions validly may not be suspended while those who were invalidly promoted are retained."

Demotion—Police Captain Reassigned as Policeman—Not a Dismissal. In *Petrillo v. City of Farrell*, 29 Atl. (2d) (Pa.), the Pennsylvania Supreme Court ruled that a captain of a police force of a city of the third class could properly be demoted to the rank of member of the force without any hearing as is generally required in cases of dismissal. It appeared that no examination had been required for promotion to the rank of captain. Therefore, reasoned the court, the only tenure right secured by a civil service policeman was to remain on the force and not in any superior position. A careful examination of the civil service statute revealed no restriction on summary demotions.

Office and Position—Distinguished—Oath of Office Not Required of Assistant Counsel. An assistant city counsel holds a "position" rather than an "office," and the statutory provisions

requiring city officers to file an oath of allegiance has no application, so that the civil service appointment of such assistant counsel was valid, notwithstanding his failure to file the oath. *City of Camden v. Civil Service Commission*, 29 Atl. (2d) 733 (N. J.).

"An office," said the court, "is a place in a governmental system created or recognized by the law of the state which, either directly or by delegated authority assigns to the incumbent thereof continuous performance of certain permanent public duties, whereas, a position differs from an office in that its duties may be non-governmental and not assigned to it by any public law of the state." The court found that the ordinance creating the position of assistant city counsel does not assign any "permanent public duties" thereto, so that a position, rather than an office, was created.

Although a city ordinance fixed the term of an assistant city counsel at three years, and subsequently at one year, the court pointed out that the power of a city council to fix terms of its employees is a qualified one, limited by the phrase "except as otherwise provided by law." In this case there was such a provision of superior law, for the state civil service statute placed the position in a class entitling him to the full protection of civil service tenure.

The court therefore affirmed the order of the Civil Service Commission ordering the restoration of the dismissed employee to his position as Assistant City Counsel. "The power of the Civil Service Commission to nullify the dismissal and to order reinstatement is not open to question," the court held. "The power to order payment of salary would seem to necessarily go with and implement the power to reinstate."

Abolition of Positions—Limitation of Action—Vacation Period. The California civil service act of 1913 provided that all actions by civil service employees relating to lay-offs "must be brought and served within one year" after separation from the service. This statute was superseded by a 1937 act, which provided for the same limitation period, and further declared that "any such cause of action . . . arising prior to the effective date of this act shall be exempt from the provisions of this section."

In *Pohle v. Christian*, 130 Pac. (2d) 417 (Cal.), an action was brought by a state civil service employee seeking reinstatement to the

position from which he had been laid off for reasons of economy. His cause of action accrued while the 1913 statute was still in force, and since he brought this action more than one year after his original discharge, he would have been barred under the 1913 act. However, after the lay-off, but before he began this action, the 1937 act was passed. Although the 1937 statute also contains a one year limitation period, it provides, as noted above, that causes of action arising before the act was passed shall be excepted from such provision. The petitioner claimed that as to his cause of action, no limitation period applied. The court disagreed interpreting the 1937 statute to mean that as to causes arising before its passage, they were governed by the law *then existing*. Thus, petitioner's claim was governed by the 1913 statute, and his action was barred by the one year limitation period.

However, the court granted a monetary judgment to petitioner for vacation time which had accrued to him and which he had not taken at the time of his lay-off. Without quoting the particular provisions, the court ruled that the general statutes of the state granted such vacation allowance. Although conceivably petitioner may have waived his right to vacation allowance, the waiver was not pleaded as a defense in the answer, and so petitioner is entitled to the allowance.

In *Clark v. State Personnel Board*, 133 Pac. (2d) 11 (Cal., Jan. 4, 1943), the court cited *Pohle v. Christian, supra*, as authority for the proposition that "an employee does not lose his right to compensation for accumulated vacation periods upon being separated from the service unless he has waived it by refusing to take a vacation before he was laid off."

Removals—Nature of Proceeding. The New York Civil Service Law governing removals generally (Sec. 22, Subd. 2) does not require a "trial" of the removed employee. *Plunkett v. Wilson*, 37 N. Y. S. (2d) 959 (Sup. Ct. Sp. Term). The court sustained the removal of an Inspector of Plumbing in the Department of Housing and Buildings of New York City. Specific charges had been presented; he was given an opportunity to explain; and he was found guilty, on the basis of ex parte testimony, of accepting gratuities. The court explained the nature of the removal procedure under this subdivision of the law thus:

The exigencies of administrative procedure demand a quick and effective method of removal of employees charged with incompetency or misconduct. The rule is firmly settled that the courts will not interfere with the exercise of discretion on the part of the removing authority where the formalities of Sec. 22, Subd. 2 have been complied with . . . if, indeed, the procedure of Sec. 22, Subd. 2 . . . produces anomalous results where serious charges are brought against civil service employees who are not given the right to confront their accusers and subject them to cross-examination, the remedy lies with the legislature. The courts must obey the mandates of the statute. If there is substantial evidence to sustain the [removing officer's] determination, the discretion of the removing official will not be interfered with.

Removal—Deputy Assessor—Duties Determine Nature of "Deputy" Position. Veterans and exempt volunteer firemen under the New York Law are protected against summary dismissal. However, the section expressly provides that it shall not apply to the "deputy of any official or department."

In *Steen v. Nassau County*, 38 N. Y. S. (2d) 496, aff'd. 37 N. Y. S. (2d) 1023, the petitioner, an exempt volunteer fireman, sought reinstatement to the position of deputy county assessor of Nassau County, from which position he had been summarily removed. The sole issue was whether he was a "deputy" so as to be beyond the protection of the statute.

The court relied on the general rule that the title of a position does not determine its nature. The court examined the petitioner's duties, and found that "he was not authorized to act in the place of any of the members of the board of assessors in their absence or inability to act, and did not have the power to perform any of the duties of the members of the board of assessors as defined and prescribed by law. There would seem to be little doubt that the title 'deputy' herein was a misnomer." The court, therefore, ruled that the petitioner was entitled to reinstatement, for he had been dismissed without a hearing as provided by the statute.

Removal of Commissioners—New York Optional City Government Law—Authority of Mayor and City Council. The New York State Optional City Government Law provides for various plans for the operation of municipal governments. The city of Binghamton operated under Plan F. Under Plan F, the mayor is the chief executive officer of the city, and the city council has only legislative power. Whereas, the council has the power to appoint

civil service commissioners under Plans A, B, and C, that power is granted to the mayor under Plan F. It was held in *Cary v. Council of City of Binghamton*, 38 N. Y. S. (2d) 255 (App. Div.), that under this plan the city council has no power to remove a civil service commissioner.

The last sentence of Section 47 of the Optional City Government Law provides that a civil service commissioner "may be removed during his term of office by the unanimous vote of the council. . ." However, that provision may be deemed to apply only to cities where the council exercises administrative powers, as under Plans A, B, and C.

(Editor's Note: The court held that Section 47 of the Optional City Government Law expressly provides that it is "subject to the provisions of the civil service law." Therefore, reasoned the court, Subdivision 6 of Section 11 of the Civil Service Law controls. That section permits removal of civil service commissioners by the "mayor or other duly authorized appointing authority." The inference is that since removal power is granted to the mayor, the city council cannot act. But this would render nugatory the provision in the Optional City Government Law for removal by unanimous vote of the council. Nothing in Section 11 of the Civil Service Law requires that removal of commissioners by the mayor be the exclusive method of removal. And there are numerous instances where statutory remedies are cumulative, to be found in more than one statute. Thus it would seem that the real basis for the decision in the instant case is the interpretation that the provision for removal by vote of the council was intended to apply only to those city governments operating under a plan permitting appointment by the council. In this connection, the court properly bolstered its view by pointing to the general rule that in the absence of direct provision for power to remove, an express grant of power to appoint is held to imply a concurrent grant of power to remove.

Removal — Reinstatement — Waiver of Defense of Laches. Although an employee's laches in protesting against an illegal removal may constitute a valid defense to an action for reinstatement, this defense may be waived by the employing city. This was the ruling in *Schearer v. City of Reading*, 28 Atl. (2d) 790 (Pa.). The chief of police of the city had been improperly

removed by pretense of abolishing his office, which was found not to be bona-fide. He took no action for four years. The city then reappointed him voluntarily without further examination. The court found "no violation of the civil service law. The city was fully competent to waive the defense of laches, just as a defendant may waive the defense of the statute of limitations." A second attempted removal of the employee on the same earlier basis was therefore held improper, since he had lawfully regained his civil service status.

The court distinguished *Detoro v. Pittston*, 344 Pa. 254, 25 Atl. (2d) 299 (reported in 3 *Public Personnel Review* 239, July, 1942). "That case held that in mandamus proceedings brought to compel petitioner's reinstatement in the police force after summary dismissal, the city had not, by employing him without examination in violation of . . . civil service provisions . . . waived the violation as a defense. In the instant case the waiver was not of plaintiff's noncompliance with the civil service requirements, but rather of his failure promptly to assert his rights thereunder."

Removals—Appeals to Court—Necessity to Conform to Statutory Procedure. The 1940 civil service act of Louisiana, applying to certain municipalities where regularly paid fire and police departments function, permits a discharged employee to appeal to the courts where his removal is sustained by the civil service commission. However, the appeal procedure is specifically set forth, and unless the statutory provisions are obeyed an appeal may not be taken to the appellate court. In *Pettit v. Reitzell*, 11 So. (2d) 13 (La.), the court pointed out that the statute requires that an aggrieved appellant "must not only state in his written motion for an appeal the grounds upon which he relies for the reversal of the judgment complained of, but these grounds are specifically limited by the act to the inquiry of 'whether the judgment or order of removal . . . was or was not made in good faith for cause.'" The appellant failed to specify in his motion for an appeal any acts indicating that his removal "was not made in good faith for cause." The motion for an appeal contained the sole allegation that the order of removal was contrary to the law and the evidence. The court therefore ruled that the lower tribunal obtained no jurisdiction of the appeal, and so its order

annulling the determination of removal was set aside.

Removals—Retirement After Removal Under Massachusetts Law. An assistant clerk of the Board of Works of the City of Holyoke had been presented with reasons for his removal by the Board pursuant to statutory provision. Within the proper statutory period the employee requested a hearing, but before such hearing was held, the mayor, as the city retiring authority, allowed the clerk's petition for retirement. The clerk then waived his right to a hearing, and no hearing was ever held. A taxpayer sought to prevent payment of the retirement allowance. The clerk contended that since the retirement occurred before any hearing on the removal, he was still employed at the time of his retirement, and was thus entitled to the allowance. The court rejected this consideration of the removal statute. *Kennedy v. City of Holyoke*, 44 N. E. (2d) 786 (Mass.).

The court indicated that under the Massachusetts statute, reasons in writing are given "after such removal," and the purpose of the hearing is to secure *reinstatement*. "Under the present law," stated the court, "the removal is complete and effective if sufficient reasons are duly furnished. . . . This was done in the instant case, and no reinstatement was ever secured."

LEGAL NOTES

Constitutional Officers—"Inferior Officers"
Established by Law—Requirement of Legislative Confirmation. Legislative confirmation of executive appointments is rather traditional in this country. Many of the state constitutions specifically require that all appointments made by the governor or heads of departments, members of commissions, and judges of the courts shall be with the advice and consent of the one or both branches of the legislature. The practice is often recognized in statutes creating departments or agencies of government and is sometimes extended to executive appointments in municipalities. Where the constitution places the power of appointment exclusively in the executive, the legislature may not place any restriction on such appointments by requiring legislative approval of them. Otherwise there is no limitation on the power of the legislature to require by statute its confirmation of any appointments.

The issue in state and municipal governments does not often arise, probably because the state constitutions and municipal charters and general laws are reasonably specific as to application of legislative confirmation. The provision in the United States Constitution, however, is not so specific as to avoid misinterpretation or misunderstanding of its basic provision. It has often been the subject of debate. It is now the subject of serious controversy in the Congress, which has become much exercised over the "constitutional responsibility" of the Senate to confirm "officers of the United States." The McKellar bill (S.575), as introduced by its author, would place exclusively in the President the power to appoint with Senate confirmation. The proposal would deem all positions carrying salaries of \$4,500 or over as "inferior offices," as mentioned in the Constitution, and would require Senate confirmation.

Subdivision 2 of Section 2 of Article II of the United States Constitution reads as follows:

He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law; but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

The Constitution appears to make a clear distinction between the mandatory requirement of confirmation by the Senate of "all other officers of the United States . . . established by law," and the vesting of the power of appointment of "such inferior officers" as the Congress thinks proper in the President alone, in the courts, or in the heads of departments. In the case of the first category, "officers of the United States established by law," Senate confirmation is mandatory; in the case of other "inferior officers" there is no requirement of confirmation, but merely the power to determine in whom appointing authority may vest.

The reference in the Constitution to "officers of the United States" is not to all "officers" in a generic sense. The reference is plainly to "officers established by law." This must mean specific offices established by some express statute setting forth the specific powers and authority of such officers. Obviously, it cannot

apply to those subordinate officers merely assuming authority or undertaking to exercise discretion through delegation of authority by their superiors. It cannot, by the nature of things, apply to the thousands of administrative aides whose positions are established solely by budgetary authority or authorized by a department head.

The creation of positions under a general authority to an agency, bureau, or division to carry out a function authorized by Congress does not place such positions in the category of "officers established by law," as contemplated by the Constitution. Practical construction of the constitutional section supports this view, as does the general practice in the states, which have somewhat similar provisions calling for legislative confirmation of appointments by the governor. Confirmation is generally restricted to the relatively few policy-determining offices of the rank of commissioners, department heads and their immediate deputies.

The truth is that Congress, taking advantage of this seeming misapprehension of its responsibility of confirming Presidential appointments, has extended its sphere beyond that contemplated by the Constitution. Congress undoubtedly may require confirmation of appointments made by the President or any one else. It is another thing, however, to state that the Constitution demands that the Congress provide for Senate confirmation of all positions characterized by it as "officers of the United States."

The long established practice of requiring Senate confirmation of postmasters and other

similar minor "dignitaries" is often cited as the "practical construction" of the constitutional responsibility of the Senate to confirm all such presidential appointments. Confirmation, however, is not constitutionally essential for these positions; it has been provided for by special statutes. Congress may, of course, require such confirmation even in the absence of express constitutional authority to do so. These lesser officials are patently not "officers of the United States established by law" intended to be included within the constitutional concept.

Nor does the provision authorizing the Congress to vest the power of appointment of "inferior officers" in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments, imply that any such officers appointed by the President must have congressional confirmation. Distinction must be made between policy-making officials such as are specifically enumerated in the Constitution (which would undoubtedly include all heads of departments, and heads of independent establishments and agencies, whether created by the Congress or by executive order of the President) and administrative officers in whom the exercise of discretion in carrying out determined policies of their superiors is more or less inherent. Not to recognize this distinction is to encourage impingement by the legislative branch of government on the constitutional authority and prerogatives of the Executive, and might do violence to the division of executive, judicial and legislative authority so jealously guarded under our theory of government.—(*Editor*)

BOOK REVIEWS

Public Service Recruitment in Australia. Robert S. Parker. Melbourne University Press, Melbourne, Australia. 1942. 296p. 10/-.

Besides being good soldiers and staunch allies, the Australians have a reputation as an especially progressive and inventive people in political affairs. It is a little surprising, therefore, to discover that, by American standards, at least, their practices and attitudes in the field of public personnel administration are rather backward. Merit principles had won acceptance in Australia when the attack on spoils and patronage was just getting under way in the United States, but, like some extremely precocious children, the civil service systems of the Australian states, and later the Commonwealth, have in recent years shown signs of arrested development. As Mr. Parker says,

Our modernity is the modernity of the twentieth century, but not of its fourth decade. Never afflicted by the system of "spoils to the victor," almost freed from the curse of "patronage," we have rested content in the virtuous aura of "recruitment by examination" and "promotion by merit," without looking about us to see whether "examination" means the same thing as it did thirty years ago, or whether "merit" can be discerned and measured by no better technique than the eagle eye of a room-boss and the hallmark of "Conduct and performance of duties: Satisfactory." In short, within the framework of principles there is much room for refinement and improvement of technique; and outside that framework, it may be that new principles can be found to add to it.

Several causes seem to have contributed to this backwardness. One, according to Mr. Parker, "is the almost complete absence of academic study of public administration in Australia." Another has been the practice of drawing the officials controlling personnel management almost exclusively from the public service. Being successful products of the existing system, they are inclined to be complacent

in the face of criticism. A third cause is one which affects not only personnel administration but all public administration in Australia. It is the failure of the Australian public services to make any effective provision, except in the case of professional positions, for the recruitment of the country's best educational products. As a rule, the states and the Commonwealth recruit their clerical and administrative employees as 'teen age youths, and there is no initial recruitment to their Executive and Administrative Classes. The result appears to be that the public service has failed to utilize its share of the best talent of the nation.

In his final chapter the author considers the necessity of vitalizing the administrative group through the recruitment of university graduates or the further training of promising employees. He concludes that there are methods of accomplishing this without violating democratic principles once the concept is accepted that the "fundamental need of the Australian Public Services is for a clearly-defined administrative cadre." Opposed to the acceptance of the concept are strong vested interests among the rank and file of public employees and their parliamentary advocates.

American readers will recognize the problem of obtaining a class of top-flight administrators as one we share with Australia, although there does not exist here, quite fortunately, so strong a prejudice against tapping the higher levels of education. A number of other personnel problems mentioned by Mr. Parker have a familiar ring—veterans' preference, the single personnel administrator *vs.* the board, excessive numbers of temporary employees, and departments exempted from civil service acts, to mention a few.

One feature of public personnel administration which is unfamiliar on this side of the

Pacific is the practice of compulsory arbitration of wage disputes. Australian public employees, except in the states of Victoria and Tasmania, come under either industrial or civil service arbitration authorities, and awards are given affecting individual employees as well as classes. The practice naturally plays hob with classification schemes. Mr. Parker does not describe its effects in detail, but he quotes the statements of several civil service authorities about the interference they have suffered through the operation of arbitration acts.

Through the author's broad interpretation of "recruitment," the reader obtains a fairly complete picture of the Australian public services. Mr. Parker is mainly concerned with describing public personnel practices, but he also offers a generous amount of criticism and appraisal. Throughout the book he reveals a thorough knowledge of the civil service systems of Australia and an acquaintance with developments in the field of public administration in England and the United States. He has made a worthwhile contribution to the literature of comparative administration. His book encourages one to believe that the study of public administration in Australia is looking up.

HIRAM M. STOUT

Washington, D. C.

Education for the Public Social Services. A Report of the Study Committee, American Association of Schools of Social Work. The University of North Carolina Press. Chapel Hill. 1942. 324p. \$3.00.

Described by the Committee as an "exploration of training needs in the public social services," this study is more than an analysis. It presents in nine carefully, almost too cautiously, written chapters a descriptive analysis and evaluation of what the schools of social work are doing to prepare personnel for those public social services included under the Social Security Act. In addition, this volume outlines in an Appendix the other public social services, not involved in the Social Security program, which demand similar intensive study in the future.

Those social services on the operating and supervisory and administrative levels selected by the Committee for review of job content and training needs were: old age insurance, unemployment compensation and employment

service, public assistance, and child welfare. It was found that the personnel in these services identify certain skills and knowledge which are common to all the services and certain others which are specific to each particular service. They also discovered, contrary to the belief of some "general experts" (who hold that "administration is administration regardless of program"), that there is a "widespread recognition of the need to know the fundamentals of the agency program either through professional training or experience, or both, before an adequate administrative job can be attempted."

The chapter entitled "Personnel Policies" presents some hitherto unpublished data on the state merit systems. The final section of this chapter, which deals with federal leadership in personnel practices, leans too heavily upon the official confessions of accomplishments contained in the Annual Reports of the Social Security Board. The inquiring civil service official will want to temper his evaluation of this area by reading also the University of Chicago doctoral thesis by Jean Charters Graham, "Merit Systems in Social Security, a Study of the Administration of the Personnel Amendments to the Social Security Act," published subsequent to the Committee's study.

The final chapter of the study, "Relationship of the Services and the Schools," examines the trends toward recognition of the professional function in the public social services and reviews briefly the impact of these expanded services upon the structure, curriculum, faculty and students of the schools. The entire study is a readable book, well organized and packed with direct suggestions and clues for further study.

LOUIS E. HOSCH

American Public Welfare Association
Chicago, Illinois

Personnel Selection by Standard Job Tests. Charles A. Drake. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. New York. 1942. 147p. \$2.00.

While not specifically stated, this book was evidently written for time-and-motion-study engineers and for industrial personnel departments unacquainted with modern selection techniques. That it is not too well-designed even for this purpose is shown by the fact that it lacks a bibliography and, with the exception of one incidental reference to Link (*Employment Psychology*, by Henry C. Link, 1919),

there are no references to any text or periodical literature on the subjects of industrial psychology, personnel administration, testing or statistics.

Two noteworthy statements are made in the text: "This book offers an exposition of a new technique for the selection of industrial personnel" and "Only recently has the human factor been recognized as measurable and predictable within reasonable limits." Readers generally familiar with the personnel and testing literature of the last 25 years will be inclined to disagree with these statements. The reader familiar with modern statistical concepts will also find the statistical treatment of data and certain allegedly new statistical devices totally unsound. The writer falls into the error of substituting test scores for validating criteria; in his debunking of other types of tests, such as, pencil-and-paper aptitude tests, achievement tests, and test research, he also makes many unsound and wholly unwarranted statements.

These criticisms of the text are not intended to imply that its reading is totally a waste of time. Even though the volume presents as new principles or techniques many accepted and time-honored findings in the field of human measurement, a re-emphasis of these principles in the text and their review by the reader may be found worth while.

The author devotes considerable attention to the desirability of constructing tests on the basis of job analyses to the extent that this is based on time and motion studies. The suggestion may prove new to the readers for which the text is best suited, but to the persons in the public personnel field, it certainly does not come as any startlingly new discovery, inasmuch as the literature of our field is replete with references to the use of job analysis as a basis for a sound testing program. Similarly, the observation of the author that time-and-motion-study engineers have failed to appreciate the human factor in job success, and the almost universal assumption by them and industrial managers that willingness and intensive training are the only factors in job success, is certainly not a criticism that can be directed at public personnel technicians.

Other observations of the author appear to be worth-while repeating merely to remind ourselves of their existence: acuity of vision or hearing has little relationship to what is per-

ceived; jobs should be designed for the average worker likely to be selected rather than for exceptional or unusual individuals; for positions requiring training or learning, aptitudes as measured by tests are better selection devices than any other methods; and no selection tools are exact measures or predictors of job success but are based on the principles of probability.

The author points (and it is worth remembering in times like these) that in instances where only 5 per cent of the applicants are selected for employment, testing methods are almost 100 per cent effective; but where 50 per cent or more of the applicants must be hired, results are far from satisfactory. (With exception of this one observation, the author devotes no attention at all to the current personnel problem of differentiating, not between the best and the good, but between the fair and the poor. This in spite of the book being written and published during 1942.)

The author borrows (without acknowledging) the concept of what is called in the educational field an "achievement quotient" or "educational ratio"—that is, the relationship between capacity and actual performance. This has promise of considerable application and utilization in the field of industrial supervision and management, although its full effectiveness awaits the development of a complete testing program.

One of the principal contributions of the text is a list of eighteen principles to be observed in the design and utilization of performance or apparatus test. This list should prove useful to public personnel administrators in checking the construction of so-called "demonstration" tests.

Finally, to personnel administrators the text should have the principal value of stimulating their interest in individually administered apparatus tests of aptitudes. This is another field of testing almost wholly neglected in the civil service field, the excuse in the past having been the high cost resulting from large numbers of applicants. At the present time, when most agencies are faced with a dearth of applicants and when the expense of continued turn-over from inadequate selection and consequent discharges is quite high, cost should no longer be a deterrent. Under prevailing conditions personnel agencies should certainly be exploring every avenue of better selection methods.

To sum up, while the text is defective technically from many points of view and while many of the principles adduced as new are not new, nevertheless, this book should serve as a stimulant to public personnel administrators and technicians in re-examining their own techniques and in striving to make improvements therein.

DONALD J. SUBLLETTE

Detroit Civil Service Commission
Detroit, Michigan

Breaking the Skilled Labor Bottleneck. Eugene J. Benge. The National Foremen's Institute, Inc. Deep River, Conn. 1942. 47p. \$2.00.

Many solutions to the problem of how to gain maximum production have been proposed, but all of these, Mr. Benge believes, depend on the basic factor of industry's ability to utilize labor resources to the greatest possible advantage. The labor shortage cannot be met by advertising in the newspapers for skilled workers, or by calling on the employment agencies for assistance; these sources are nearly exhausted and will yield practically no response. Industry must therefore depend on itself, on its own existing personnel, even on a personnel which may be drastically depleted. The most promising method for avoiding or overcoming the labor shortage, the one which in practice has shown immediate results is "subdivision of skill, coupled with intensive training."

Mr. Benge defines the word skill as referring to "... the *quality* of performance. It is characterized by precision in coordination of the senses, knowledge, and muscles involved." He then proceeds to analyze the nature of muscular, sensory, and thinking skills. Selecting workers who possess aptitudes in each of these skills by aptitude tests and inventories of past experience will do much to insure the success of the training program.

A job analysis, when undertaken by an expert, is a most effective tool in subdividing labor skills to gain maximum production. The job analysis includes a descriptive analysis of the work performed, the job requirements, and time and motion studies. It may reveal what Mr. Benge calls "job families and the degree of overlapping among tasks in a given family." Then the number of highly skilled workers, partially skilled workers, and unskilled workers required can be determined. Time study

may disclose a necessity to reallocate the order in which the steps in a job are performed. A by-product may be a resulting economy in the cost of labor since unskilled workers may be trained to do parts of a job formerly entirely performed by a skilled workman.

According to the author, training consists of: "(1) gradually implanting the necessary information; (2) providing practice in sensory training; (3) by repetition, developing the necessary muscular coordinations." Upgrading, according to the tables in the appendix, would seem to be far more profitable than teaching inexperienced workers, since the learning time in almost every case is from 20 to 25 per cent shorter. Segregated training also appears to be much more effective than on-the-job training; workers who received intensive segregated training were able to equal in 11 weeks the output of shop-trained workers who had been working for 26 weeks, and these segregated workers continued to increase their productivity to a level 20 per cent higher than experienced older employees.

Mr. Benge also stresses the necessity for adequate supervision, employee cooperation in the training program, continuing apprenticeship training, and financial and non-financial incentives. Although the training principles are basic in all circumstances, the immediate objective is to break the skilled labor bottleneck *now*. He wisely cautions:

If industry were to continue indefinitely specialized skill training, there would ultimately be a loss of that "all-around" ability which becomes so precious in time of emergency. . . . Let us never deceive ourselves into thinking that the magic of upgrading has transmuted baser metals into gold. All-around skilled mechanics are not made wholesale by upgrading.

The author believes that, in early training, accuracy rather than speed should be stressed. This is noteworthy in view of the fact that other training specialists hold that accuracy overstressed at the expense of fast motion distorts the skill by giving a distorted view of essentials. Fast motions must be present from the beginning and must be practiced constantly if high speed is to be attained. Slow but sure repetition is not always the best policy because slow speeds in motion may not hold together under fast usage.

In the author's opinion, "Flow charts and sequential statements of steps in the production cycle are of little value in the analysis needed

for training work. . . . what is needed at this early stage is an analysis of exactly what is required of the worker in performing his regular task." This seems to be contradictory, for a sequential statement of steps will show exactly what is required in the performance of a task.

Although lack of space may have been the cause, it is to be regretted that Mr. Benge almost completely neglects the individual worker and his response to the training program. As far as he is concerned, a worker would seem to be merely a bundle of muscular and sensory paths, sometimes equipped with a thinking mechanism.

The author endeavors to enliven his message with numerous charts and diagrams, but for the most part these becloud rather than clarify. Those which are designed to show that skill has muscular, sensory, and ideational aspects do not succeed in demonstrating the relationship between the three and almost suggest that the opposite is true. In Figure 11, *Subdivision Based on Time Study*, the author's purpose is to show how parts of a job can be reallocated, so that those which require high skill can be performed consecutively by highly skilled workmen while the other parts can be performed by those possessing lesser degrees of skill. This is one of the most valuable original diagrams in the book, but it is difficult to decipher and the contrast between the new and old methods is not readily discerned. It would also appear unlikely that the old method in which a skilled workman performs the entire job should take exactly the same amount of time as the new method in which the job is broken up. On the other hand, Figure 6, *Laws of Learning and Correspond-Training Principles*, is a compact summary which could well be used in supervisory training programs.

Mr. Benge's analysis of the situation seems a little too simple; all of the case histories, for example, have a happy ending. His training principles are already well-known and are to a large extent being applied. For those industries and governmental jurisdictions which have not yet been awakened to the need for the application of these principles and for those which are about to embark upon a program, this book may prove informative.

JOHN J. FURIA

Mayor's Council on Public Service Training
New York City

Theory and Practice of Job Rating. M. F. Stigers and E. G. Reed. McGraw-Hill Book Company. New York. 1942. 154p. \$1.75.

The rating method outlined in this manual uses the well known approach of isolating the tangible items in an intangible situation, subjecting those items to critical analysis and objectively evaluating them. These evaluations then are thrown into the hopper with the remaining intangible items. The equation or operating device applied to the result is then claimed to be objective. Here the authors propose breaking a job down into its constituent elements, establishing a point evaluation for each of the elements, and using the total of the points in whatever manner seems feasible. The main use indicated, however, is the evaluation of the job for purposes of payment.

The system outlined differs substantially from that used in practically all public personnel agencies. Whether this or a comparable system will be considered of particular value by public personnel administrators is questionable, particularly in those agencies where the determination of wages is not the sole responsibility of the personnel department. The system might be used internally for purposes of comparing jobs and operations but it is doubtful whether the evaluation of the job on a monetary basis, along the lines indicated in this brochure, will find acceptance by the legislative bodies which must eventually provide for the payment of salaries.

A situation that came to the attention of this reviewer some time ago is a case in point. It was somewhat as follows: The job was that of operating a small tractor snow plow for clearing snow off sidewalks. Evaluation on any realistic basis would approximate \$100 a month, but the operators belonged to a trade union having a minimum rate of \$175 per month. In a community where the appropriating body was elected or defeated by the organized labor vote, the conclusion reached was not difficult to foresee. Thus, despite the claims of the authors that this system has received the approval of both management and organized labor, one wonders whether the use of point evaluation in the cited instance would have altered the conclusion. One is inclined to believe that while complete objectivity is desirable, the successful public administrator is going to be the one who can keep an operating balance between the ob-

jective and that which is completely arbitrary.

Although the authors claim scientific objectivity for the plan, another value is claimed for it that is not objective and which probably will not receive acclaim from public personnel administrators. The introduction of design—"design implies working for predetermined results" (p. 41)—comes perilously close to manipulation. Establishing an arbitrary point value "to promote the safety program" or as "a part of a planned economy of abundance," when discovered by a legislative body, would probably result in an investigating committee descending on the personnel agency.

This book should be read by technicians who have trouble holding to an objective approach to pay problems in the face of pressure from line officials. The more obvious pitfalls will become apparent. It should also be read by those who do not use the more objective means at their disposal in their internal administration, safety programs, and so forth. Whether "wage calculation can become one of the most interesting and exact of all sciences" will be a very interesting topic for many discussions.

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BOOK NOTES

Wartime Transference of Labour in Great Britain. International Labour Office, Washington, D. C. 1942. 163p. \$1.00.

Where Can We Get War Workers? Sanford Griffith. Public Affairs Committee, Incorporated. New York. 32p. \$1.00.

These two studies present, on the one hand, a picture of the major manpower problems involved in mobilization for total war in England, and on the other, a case study in the United States—In Baltimore, Maryland. The first study is concerned with the methods evolved in Britain in securing the most efficient distribution of the available workers in essential employments. There, 75 per cent of the adult population has been transferred from peacetime pursuits to war occupations. The second study gives the results of a survey of the manpower situation in Baltimore, where a labor shortage was reported. It was found that many thousands of potential workers, chiefly women and negroes, were available within the city, but were not being trained and placed in

jobs as rapidly as the demands of the war program required. The results of the Baltimore survey appear to indicate that the methods already utilized in Great Britain may be used to good advantage by other members of the United Nations.

War Jobs for Women. Office of War Information. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 1942. 48p. \$1.00.

Needed—Women in Government Service. Dickey Meyer. Robert M. McBride and Company, 116 East 16th Street, New York, N. Y. 1942. 220p. \$2.00.

These two publications are both concerned with the same general problem, that of the place of women in the present employment picture. *War Jobs for Women*, originally prepared for the use of magazine editors and then released for general circulation, describes opportunities with each of the several women's organizations of the armed services, in war industry, in business and the professions, and in volunteer work. Civilian employment with the federal government is given only incidental attention. *Needed—Women in Government Service*, on the other hand, is concerned entirely with civilian governmental employment, devoting sections to office work, manual operations, engineering, and other professions. An introductory section describes the work of the United States Civil Service Commission and methods of securing employment in the federal service. The volume is illustrated throughout with photographs, many of which were taken by the author.

Womanpower: The Key to the Manpower Problem. *Employment Security Review*, Bureau of Employment Security, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C. December, 1942. 25p. \$1.00.

This entire issue of *Employment Security Review* is devoted to various problems involved in the large scale employment of women. Although compiled primarily for the use of United States Employment Service personnel, the facts and figures contained in the articles are of general interest. Subject matter includes methods of recruitment, training, experiences of other countries in the employment of women, and the problem of day-care for children.

The Physically Handicapped: Assets, not Liabilities. *Manpower Review*. War Manpower Commission, Washington, D. C., January, 1943. 24p.

The entire January issue of *Manpower Review*, formerly entitled *Employment Security Review*, is devoted to a consideration of the manpower reserve represented by the physically handicapped, together with the necessity for utilizing the skills and abilities of this group to meet present labor shortages. Subjects of individual articles include: the need for revising the prevailing attitudes concerning employment of physically handicapped and older workers; the government's use of this source of manpower; placement clinics for physically handicapped persons; and the work of the United States Employment Service and the State Vocational Rehabilitation Divisions of the United States Office of Education. Reports made by local offices of the Employment Service concerning successful employment of the physically handicapped are included in the issue.

Interviewing: Its Principles and Methods.

Annette Garrett. Family Welfare Association of America. New York. 1942. 123p. \$1.00.

The skill required in the successful use of interviewing techniques makes for continued interest in the subject. While this study is written from the standpoint of the social case worker, the techniques described are applicable to other types of professional service in which contacts with the public are required. Part One contains a formulation of the general principles and methods of interviewing, and Part Two contains illustrative interviews applying the principles discussed in the preceding part.

Social Work as a Profession. Esther Lucile Brown. Fourth Edition. Russell Sage Foundation. New York. 1942. 232p. \$1.00.

Much new material has been added to the fourth edition of this monograph—one of a series dealing with the present status of certain established or emerging professions in this country. Among subjects added or treated at greater length than in previous editions are data on schools of social work; number and

demand for social workers; their salaries; and wartime trends in the field.

Municipalities and the Law in Action. Charles S. Rhyne, Editor. National Institute of Municipal Law Officers, Washington, D. C. 1943. 611p. \$7.50.

This summary of developments in the field of municipal law during 1942, one of a series of such volumes initiated in 1938, contains several sections of direct interest to public personnel administrators and technicians. These include: "Municipal Employees in War Service," a portion of "One Year's Experience in American Cities at War," by Paul E. Krause, Corporation Counsel of Detroit, Michigan; "The Federal Attempt to Control Municipal Wages," by F. Murray Benson, City Solicitor of Baltimore, Maryland; "Jurisdiction of the War Labor Board Over Disputes Between Municipalities and Unions of Municipal Employees," by Raymond Schroeder, Corporation Counsel of Newark, New Jersey; "Proprietary and Governmental Function Doctrine and Jurisdiction of the War Labor Board Over Disputes Between Municipalities and Municipal Employees," by Dana Van Dusen, General Counsel, Metropolitan Utilities District, Omaha, Nebraska; and "Municipal Employee Problems Created by the War," by George M. Ferris, Corporation Counsel of Spokane, Washington. Other sections of this volume will be of general interest to those in the field of municipal government.

Attorneys for Municipalities, Municipal Agencies, Officers and Employees. Charles S. Rhyne. National Institute of Municipal Law Officers. Washington, D. C. November, 1942. 33p. \$2.00.

This report contains information concerning the employment, duties, powers, official status, and pay of city attorneys as defined by court decisions throughout the country. The report, which was in preparation over a period of three years, is designed to supplement an earlier study on city attorneys and municipal law departments. The Institute plans to collect and compile court decisions relative to all city departments and officers.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

16. Donovan, Jeremiah J. **Manpower conservation—a "must" for management.** *State Government* 15 (11) November, 1942: 215-16, 223-24.—Faced with a famine of manpower, state officials must take immediate steps to adopt an aggressive and planned program of manpower conservation if the full effect of the coming shortage is to be met without cutting services drastically or abandoning them altogether. There are three main points of attack on the problem of manpower conservation. The first is the maximum utilization of present personnel: avoiding the wastage of personnel through such causes as uncontrolled layoffs, the assignment of tasks below an employee's skills, and the retention of an excess of employees in activities of secondary importance; emphasizing a liberal use of transfers of employees to jobs which are vital to the war effort; training of employees for new work or for increased production; promoting from within the ranks; and postponing retirement or recalling retired employees. To serve as an effective basis for utilization of present personnel, an inventory of employee skills is essential, based on a centrally prepared card index of personal history and qualification statements obtained from employees. The second major point of attack consists of minimizing employee turnover through remedying inequalities in pay between employees in the jurisdiction, with, perhaps, an overall pay increase; through establishment of annual wage rates and guaranteed employment (as has been done in Minnesota) to replace hourly rates and frequent lay-off; through the development of other incentives such as a reasonable amount of sick and annual leave, credit unions, group insurance, and other employee welfare activities; and through improvement of working conditions. The third point of attack consists of tapping new sources of employees, principally womanpower, but also minority racial groups and handicapped persons. Present procedures should be examined so such restrictions as residence and age limits can be removed. To make these three points of attack effective, centralized planning, an

over-all policy, and coordinated execution are required. In many states, the machinery is at hand in the form of a central personnel agency. The critical nature of the coming manpower famine virtually demands the establishment of such agencies where none now exists. Centralized personnel administration is sound business management during peace time; in war time it is a vital necessity.—*Jean Charters Graham.*

17. Dorcus, Roy M. and Loken, Robert D. **Survey of personnel workers.** *Personnel Journal* 21 (7) January, 1943: 251-54.—Prerequisites for admission to personnel courses sponsored by the federal government under the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training program in the Los Angeles area were found to be at variance with the qualifications of individuals engaged in industrial personnel work. To ascertain what types of education and experience were possessed by personnel workers, questionnaires were sent to a number of large industrial organizations in the area. Of the approximately one hundred persons who returned questionnaires, fifty-two had pursued major subjects considered related to personnel management, namely, business administration, economics, and certain types of engineering and psychology. Ninety-one individuals reported previous related business experience ranging from one to eight years. It would appear that one of the essential prerequisites for entering personnel work is business experience. A high percentage of the group had taken individual courses in general economics and general psychology. With reference to specific personnel courses, the percentages ranged from 20 to 40. Fifty-five per cent had fewer than three related courses, leaving 45 per cent of the group classed as having adequate educational training for their work. It is not surprising, therefore, that many personnel departments are functioning on a relatively inefficient level, and that they are often unprepared to cope with labor relations problems. (Tables showing number of years of related and unrelated education and experience, and the number of specific courses taken are included in the article.)—*Charles W. Fredriksen.*

18. Hitch, Thomas K. **British manpower-control experience.** *Survey of Current Business* 23 (2) February, 1943: 16-24.—The fact that Britain's war economy was introduced some two years before ours makes her a laboratory where we can see the testing of certain policies and programs designed to solve the manpower problems with which we are faced. British experience indicates that the wholesale recruiting of workers from one job to another requires continuous action by the government along several lines: (1) work conditions must be satisfactory; (2) outside factory welfare activities must be provided; (3) the transfer of workers from one community to another requires special financial arrangements; (4) extensive training programs are necessary to make former non-workers fit for employment and for upgrading; (5) much potential manpower must, for personal reasons such as domestic responsibilities, be used in its home locality; (6) much labor can be saved by efficient organization and management of production; (7) much labor, particularly female, is available only for part-time employment; (8) the optimum work-week is about 55 hours; (9) high turnover can be attacked by "freezing," but absenteeism must be solved by other means. From a qualitative point of view two assumptions underlie the British practice: (1), it is preferable to support a man's dependents rather than to leave him at home and send in his place someone whose skill would contribute more to the national effort if used elsewhere; and (2), neither patriotic nor economic motives can be relied upon to achieve a proper distribution of skills. To insure a satisfactory distribution between the armed forces and industry, a "Schedule of Reserved Occupations and Protected Work" was established which defined precisely every occupation in the country; specialized military occupations were designated as "Service Trades." Correct proportions of each skill were allotted to the armed forces by assigning an age limit to each occupational skill above which the members would not be subject to military service. Later this reservation was changed from emphasis on skills to emphasis on location of employment by establishing a higher age ceiling for workers in nondefense industries and a lower age ceiling for workers in essential war industries. The system avoided a dissipation of critical skills while Britain was building a large army and converting to all-out war production, but now each case is reviewed and decided on an individual basis. Finally, steps were taken to work out an optimum balance among the competing demands of different industries and different firms.—*Charles H. Bentley.*

19. Howard, L. Vaughan. **War and the federal service.** *American Political Science Review*, 36 (5) October, 1942: 916-30.—Four principal means are being used by the federal government to obtain the

additional civilian personnel needed for the present war effort. The first and most controversial practice is that of employing dollar-a-year men for the duration on a loan basis. The principal reason for the employment of such persons is that war-time federal control is extended into fields of business in which the government lacks competent personnel. A second method used to secure employees is that of granting war service appointments. It involves a more intensive recruitment program; subordination of existing civil service requirements; and filling jobs without regard to the competitive requirements of the civil service rules. Furthermore, the Civil Service Commission has simplified requirements and procedures to expedite examinations and the placement of workers. Changes in the examination process which were authorized included: extension of maximum age limits; revised experience requirements; liberalized physical requirements; more extensive use of continuous open examinations and unassembled examinations; and the standardization of district system examination announcements to eliminate need for approval by the central office. Concerning placement procedures, the commission adopted a policy of decentralization, delegating its authority as much as possible to personnel officials of operating departments, as well as to its own district offices, and through the latter to local boards of examiners and special field representatives. While this decentralization resulted in a certain duplication of effort and constituted a threat to centralized control of personnel, it answered the charge that the commission could not in an emergency recruit personnel fast enough to meet the needs of government. A third method used to implement the program is an intensive use of transfers as between federal agencies. The Bureau of the Budget established priority classifications of the several executive departments and agencies in respect to their relative functional importance to the war program. Although complete authority over transfers is by executive order in the War Manpower Commission, the Civil Service Commission has been delegated as the authority to authorize such transfers. Employees can be transferred to more critical agencies without the consent of the employee or of the department in which he is employed whenever the transfer will result in a more effective contribution to the war program. This has resulted in a form of selective service for federal employees, allowing the Civil Service Commission to give war agencies the cream of the crop. The final method by which the personnel for war agencies has been secured is through the use of persons selected by the states. On January, 1942, however, the federal government took over the operation of the state employment services and negotiated for indefinite leaves of absence from the several state services for affected employees to protect their status and rights acquired under state

merit systems. All of these measures are emergency measures established and promulgated through the use of formalized procedures with definite understanding as to the duration of the employment as well as the status of the employee. This should make the adjustment after the war, so far as the employment of such persons is concerned, a relatively simple matter.—John H. Huss.

20. Levitan, David M. **The neutrality of the public service.** *Public Administration Review* 2 (4) Autumn, 1942: 317-23.—The doctrine of the neutrality of the public service assumes an attitude of impartiality of the civil servant toward conflicting philosophies of government espoused by the various political parties. Requiring public employees to refrain from participation in the affairs of political parties is a legitimate condition of employment. Such conditions however, carry the inherent responsibility to execute with loyalty the policies of whatever party is in power. This places even greater emphasis on the need for a renewed devotion to political ideals in order to prevent disenfranchisement of the employees in the lower level employment groups and to fend off the complete absorption with "administrivia" on the part of the administrative groups. Ideological education of government employees lower in the hierarchy, through indoctrination programs, is needed to convince them that their positions were created for the purpose of serving the public. As for the higher administrative hierarchy, the search for absolute political neutrality is a quest for the impossible. The public servant in an executive position must not permit himself to develop a sense of detachment from fundamental current controversies. When it becomes necessary that he must administer a program so inconsistent with his fundamental political ideology that it is no longer possible to give loyal and zealous cooperation to the policies established, he must not stand behind the "professional attitude" but step out of the position involving duties which he can no longer effectively discharge.—Robert M. Hart.

21. Lipson, Leslie. **Reconstruction in public administration. A university viewpoint.** *Journal of Public Administration* 5 (1) September, 1942: 26-45.—It is easier to plan for war than for peace because the common objective in war is victory and only the means to this end form the basis for controversy. Both the objectives and means of peace are subject to disagreement. It seems certain, however, that freedom from want and fear will constitute a universal desire after this war and that government will be called upon to make the necessary guarantees of this security. This means that the demands upon government will be greater than ever before and that in New Zealand a quarter of all workers may be expected to be employed by some level of govern-

ment. Efficient public administration results from the fusion of three indispensables: the best personnel, the best information, and the best organisation. The merit principle in public employment must be made effective in New Zealand by centralization of personnel activities, broader recruitment bases, conscious and intensive training for administrative posts, the admission of women to competition for advanced positions, and the utilization of educational facilities for improvement of the service. The recurring conflict between the specialists and the generalists must be resolved by broadening the viewpoint of the technician and increasing the special knowledge of the generalist. In addition to the improvement of its personnel, New Zealand must create staff research and planning organizations. One such agency should be divorced from the immediate party in power and should devote itself to long-term planning. The other should be utilized for immediate problems and should maintain intimate contact with the existing government. Finally, a reorganization of New Zealand government should be undertaken on a functional basis and the departments should be reduced from forty odd to twelve or thirteen, to correspond to the number of ministries. A permanent civil servant would head up each department, thus assuring continuity of performance in each such department.—Robert I. Biren.

22. Smith, Harold D. **Management in a democracy.** *National Municipal Review* 31 (9) October, 1942: 476-80.—Management lies at the core of democratic government. This is equally true in peace and in war. Neither the fruits of peace nor the objectives of war can be gained without bringing into focus the art and science of management. The firmer the foundation of management in time of peace, the less the strain on democratic government at war. Management cannot be expected to function properly in an atmosphere in which it is accused of being weak and ineffective on the one hand, and possessed of powerful revolutionary tendencies on the other. Simply stated, public management in a democracy provides the means for organizing the available resources and for guiding the combined efforts of many men toward common ends. It operates within the framework of broad policy established by the people; its purpose is to effectuate the will of the people. Therefore, those who are entrusted with the management of government in a democracy rightfully must find their mandate in the voice of the nation, must limit their activities to carrying out this mandate, and must hold themselves accountable to the source of final authority which lies in the people. But this fact alone will not assure efficiency in carrying out governmental functions. Indeed, it has been said that inefficiency characterizes the government of a democracy, and is the price paid for

freedom, while in a dictatorship the people are compensated for the loss of their liberties by administrative effectiveness. The implication that, to gain efficiency in democratic government, management must obliterate individual liberties is fallacious. Regimented action under a dictatorship is not truly efficient action. True efficiency results when men are free from fear and thus genuinely free to apply their intelligence, their training, and their enthusiasm to their tasks. Democracy makes possible a government which fully utilizes the talent and skill of managers, keeps itself responsive to the social conscience, and preserves such able, orderly, and unobtrusive administration as will facilitate the translation of national aspirations into realities.—Charles H. Bentley.

23. Stephens, F. B. **The public service—today and tomorrow.** *Journal of Public Administration* 5 (1) September, 1942: 46-75.—The public service in New Zealand has, in the past thirty years, grown some four times as fast as the population of the country. Practically all of this increase can be traced to developments in the field of social legislation. The administration of such legislation requires greater employee competency and larger staffs than were needed to administer the regulatory legislation which was normal before World War I. New Zealand has not, however, met this challenge by reasonable changes in its methods of recruitment and personnel control. Certain evasions of permanent policy have been found necessary, thus emphasizing the inadequacy of present systems. One point brought into prominence in recent years is that the responsibilities of government Ministers have increased very greatly and that some measures must be taken to relieve the Ministers of some of their routine administrative duties. Training for the public service has in general resulted in public servants who have neither the breadth of view gained through complete university training nor the appreciation of the practical effect of legislation obtained through public and commercial contact. A strengthening of the investigational and recruiting authority of the office of the Public Service Commissioner appears necessary. In addition, better integration of the institutions of higher learning with the needs of the public service must be obtained. Finally, development of planning and research agencies must be fostered to provide the factual basis on which improved post-war public administration may proceed.—Robert I. Biren.

PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

24. Benson, George C. S. **Central control agencies with special reference to personnel.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (2) October, 1942: 7-9.—One of the most perplexing problems of large-scale administrative management is the determination of the ad-

ministrative level at which a particular function can be most effectively placed. This problem becomes doubly complicated in government when certain functional specialties become central control agencies. The general practice is to place a functional specialty requiring frequent contact with operating units under the line authority of such operating units. In the case of the three federal control agencies, two—the Bureau of the Budget and the General Accounting Office—adopt this administrative management principle in general (although the General Accounting Office weakens its position by too detailed a post audit). The third, the Civil Service Commission, rejects this management principle. It has kept grades of departmental personnel officers substantially below those paid its own staff for similar duties. While initially the attitude toward departmental personnel officers was probably a result of one of those accidental circles of classification reasoning, it has sometimes become more clearly a matter of professional rivalry. In addition the Commission takes the position that its staff must come into direct contact with operating officials, unfettered by an intermediary departmental personnel agency, in placement and recruitment. One major difficulty is that the Commission has gone sledlength for centralized placement without paying adequate attention to the techniques of centralized recruitment. It becomes very difficult to carry out rules on purely departmental problems if the department's role in the placement process is eliminated. Curiously, the Classification Division, which has been so much criticized, tries least to undermine its departmental ally. It falls rather into the older error: that of trying to review each individual transaction. If the Commission staff would set classification standards for the entire service leaving the application of those standards to departmental personnel agencies, it could enforce its standards through a test-check process. Departmental personnel staffs are almost without exception sympathetic with the principles of civil service. What is needed is recognition by the Civil Service Commission that departmental offices are necessary allies in building up a sound federal personnel program. Sound administrative management dictates decentralizing most personnel activities and placing them under the jurisdiction of the operating units. Eventually the federal government will come to such a system.—Robert C. Sampson.

25. Harris, W. S. **Selecting a medium for written instructions.** *Public Administration Review* 2 (4) Autumn, 1942: 324-28.—The most common media used in transmitting instructions, rules, and regulations within administrative agencies are: the individual letter, the circular letter, and the revisable manual. A well-balanced use of the three is the goal sought by the administrator. A number of factors

must be considered in making the selection of such media, ease of reference being one of the most important. Ease of reference depends largely on four factors: (1) ease of identification of the unit and its parts; (2) availability of copies; (3) assurance of completeness of the set; (4) accessibility of subject. The individual letter is limited in its identifying characteristics, availability, and accessibility of subject matter. It is, of course, most adaptable for the mass of question-and-answer correspondence of the day-to-day type, and is properly used for all types of statements applicable to only a few individuals. The circular letter is most efficient as the vehicle for more or less permanent instructions which will be referred to a great many times by a large number of people. The weakness of the serial circular letter lies in the fact that it does not make subject matter sufficiently accessible. The revisable manual should be in some type of loose-leaf form to permit insertion or extraction of pages. The manual may be readily identified by name, and its contents may be identified by chapter, section, or unit. It is important that group, subject, and fraction headings be arranged according to the most logical sequence, thereby localizing search. The revisable manual should be used for numerous instructions that also have general applicability and possess a permanent procedural policy or technical content.

—Robert M. Hart.

26. Solem, Arnie (ed.). *Work planning in government. Part II Advanced Management* 7 (4) October-December, 1942: 180-84.—Two opposing factors will affect the decision as to the period of time to be covered by a work plan: a desire to have the plan cover a long period of time because of the work involved in its preparation; and the desire to cover a short period so that the plan may be up to date and realistic. The basis for plans of federal agencies has usually been a fiscal year or a six-month period. Since the formal planning process should begin as soon as possible before the start of the period covered by the plan, scheduling is important if every organizational unit is to have adequate time to make its contribution and the plan is to be ready before the start of the period. The plan must tell "what" (the objectives); "how much" (the projects necessary to obtain the objectives); "when" (time limits for each project); and "who" (who is responsible for each). With these questions applied throughout the agency the plans of the smaller units may be detailed, but much of the detail will be eliminated as the plan rises through the levels of administration within the agency. The plan should be realistic and reasonably attainable. It should not include projects or work which cannot be accomplished. There should also be a ranking of the projects included to facilitate decisions for abandonment if such becomes necessary. Flexibility

in the plan can be obtained by following certain operating practices: (1) a discussion of the plan at top executive meetings to indicate new activities which must be added and what their priority should be; (2) a periodic check-up on activities to assure that all necessary functions are made a part of the plan; (3) a provision in the beginning for a small margin of free time; and (4) a provision for adjusting the organization units and personnel to fit changes in the plan. The document itself can be kept up to date by issuing revised sheets, addenda or bulletins, or by indicating the changes in the plan in the periodic reports of accomplishments. Every employee should be given a copy of the work plan. The cost of such distribution will be outweighed by easier administration and the boost to morale which it will provide. Administrative co-ordination and control of the operations under the plan can be maintained in some instances by a simple tickler follow-up at regular intervals, but reports will be necessary in connection with larger operations. Control points must be selected, reporting forms designed, reporters selected, and progress recorded. Summaries of the reports must picture accomplishments accurately for purposes of comparison with the work plan schedule to determine whether or not activities are running according to schedule. Graphic presentations may be used to dramatize progress. Findings must be reported to line officers with an indication of their delinquencies, and there must be a follow-up to make certain that delinquencies are corrected. The work plan is not a hope. It is a contract which must be fulfilled. Exceptions cannot be permitted if the desired goal is to be attained.—Charles F. Parker, Jr.

CLASSIFICATION; PAY

27. Allen, Richard D. and Krone, Lester F. *Educational requirements and occupational levels. Educational and Psychological Measurement* 2 (4) October, 1942: 371-78.—The tendency in recent years has been toward promoting school children from grade to grade largely on the basis of age and attendance. Under such conditions, differentiation of instruction has been accomplished by classification or grouping within the grade, or by group assignments within each class. A study of achievement among pupils of any grade indicates a distribution of scores covering a range of from five to eight school grades or educational ages. Under these circumstances, "last grade attended" means little unless it is supplemented by such information as teachers' marks in academic subjects, information regarding the curriculum, and the classification of the pupil as a result of standardized tests in the basic skills and core subjects. An accurate appraisal of educational status and achievement is absolutely necessary in order to determine the readiness of an individual to enter a program of training at a par-

ticular occupational level, and only a rough approximation may be obtained from the school record. At the present time, there are at least five excellent batteries of achievement and aptitude tests which may be used to bring a record up to date, and there are five different groups or levels for which these tests may be appropriately used. By using all of this information to develop a chart showing levels in both educational and occupational opportunities, the most advantageous place of entrance into an occupational level can be determined, and the new employee can be placed on the pay roll with realistic regard for his qualifications.

—G. M. Morris.

28. Biren, Robert I. **Adjusting employee salaries in wartime.** *Public Management* 25 (1) January, 1943: 2-4.—Increases in the cost of living have given rise to general efforts to alleviate the hardships of employees caught in the price spiral. Steps taken to meet this situation should be based on carefully considered plans of operation and on certain fundamental criteria rather than on expediency as is often the case. Financial soundness of the jurisdiction concerned must not be jeopardized by overgenerous adjustments. The plan of salary adjustment must be consistent with the long range compensation policies of the jurisdiction. Complete analyses of the effect of pay increases by occupational groups, by agency, and by salary levels will be helpful. The form taken by pay increases granted at this time depends upon whether they are to be considered as bonuses or as a fundamental change in established pay structure, and whether or not some continuing system of keeping the pay plan geared to changes in cost of living seems desirable. There are many possible varieties and combinations of bonus plans, including those providing for a horizontal increase of a fixed amount, a horizontal percentage increase, or an increase such as that used in Minnesota, which allows greater relative increases to lower paid employees but larger actual increases to higher paid employees by granting an increase of \$5.00 a month, plus 5 per cent of the monthly pay rate, limited to a \$15 a month bonus. If the more permanent solution of gearing the pay plan to a cost-of-living index is chosen, provision should be made for revising pay rates at regular intervals. A reliable and currently maintained index of living costs definitely applicable to the jurisdiction concerned should be accessible. In working out any plan of adjustment the assistance of all interest groups should be solicited. The plan should be flexible enough to permit changes as conditions require. The existence of an adequate plan of position-classification is vital to the establishment of any comprehensive and valid compensation plan. Any effort to construct a pay plan on an obsolete or inapplicable classification base will inevitably prove unsatisfactory to all con-

cerned. (Article contains a short bibliography on salary and wage problems.)—Barbara L. Brattin.

29. Dougan, Kenneth E. **Employment of labor on an annual basis.** *Public Management* 25 (1) January, 1943: 4-7.—Many governmental employees in this country, both skilled and unskilled, whose work is essentially manual, are paid on an hourly or daily basis, even though it is not uncommon for them to be employed steadily. Such employees are generally excluded from certain benefits accorded salaried employees (those on a monthly or annual pay rate). The changing of employees from an hourly or daily rate of pay to an annual or monthly rate offers distinct advantages both to the employee and to management. Such a change brings to the employee the receipt of vacation or annual leave with pay, sick leave and holidays, permission to participate in a retirement system, the application of a merit system of selection, and eligibility for promotion. From the management viewpoint, the addition of these benefits has resulted in higher quality personnel, lower turnover, and facilitated recruitment, as shown by the experience of 13 cities reporting such a transfer. Certain problems which must be met in making the change are the determination of the new annual or monthly rate, the stabilization of the work sufficiently to make possible the annual basis of employment, and the selling of the program to employees. These problems, however, are not without solution, and wherever they have been met and solved, the change to an annual basis of employment has generally met with marked success.—Barbara L. Brattin.

30. Unsigned. **Canadian wage and cost-of-living order of July, 1942.** *Monthly Labor Review* 55 (3) September, 1942: 466-72.—A new order in council known as the War-time Wages Control Order was issued on July 10, 1942, supplementing the Canadian Wartime Wages and Cost-of-Living Bonus Order adopted in 1941. Administration is still vested in the National War Labor Board, consisting of a chairman and four or more representatives each of employers and employees. Nine regional boards represent the nine provinces. Each has a chairman and one or more representatives of employers and employees respectively. Responsibilities of the National Board include: administration of the order establishing the Board; administration of an order of October, 1941, dealing with minimum wage rates paid by manufacturers of supplies for the government; the Fair Wages and Hours of Labor Act of 1935; and supervision of the regional boards. It must also make periodic investigations and recommendations with regard to wage conditions and labor relations. The order covers employees of any employer in Canada, together with those on board any ship if its crew is ordinarily engaged in ports

of Canada. Exceptions are provincial and municipal governments, charitable bodies, and persons engaged in agriculture, horticulture, fishing, hunting or trapping. "Employee" means any person who earns less than \$175 monthly (excluding cost-of-living bonus) or who receives more than that amount but is not above the rank of foreman. Domestic servants or those engaged for purposes other than the trade or business of the employer are excluded. The National Board, with the concurrence of the Wartime Prices and Trade Board, may exclude from the order any employer or employee. With some exceptions, no employer may decrease wages below the level paid by him on November 15, 1941 without the authorization of the National Board. Employers are permitted to change wages within the limits of the range being paid on November 15, 1941 and in cases of promotion and demotion. The National Board has broad powers to direct wage increases over the level of November 15, 1941, if in its opinion such changes are justified by the circumstances. It may substitute ranges of wage rates for any schedule of rates issued under the Fair Wages and Hours of Labor Act of 1935, and may direct the payment of a cost-of-living bonus in addition. The National Board fixes the amount of increase or decrease, if any, to be made in the cost-of-living bonus on a quarterly basis, according to the rise of the cost-of-living index above the cost-of-living index for the month of October, 1941. The rise or fall of the index is measured to the nearest tenth of a point after the index has been adjusted to the base of 100.0 for August, 1939. The adjusted index number for October, 1941 is 114.6. The amount of the bonus is not changed unless the index number has changed one whole point or more since the last order of the Board. For each change of one point in the index the bonus is adjusted (a) twenty-five cents per week for all adult male employees and for all others whose weekly wage is \$25 or more, and (b) one per cent of the basic weekly wage rate for male employees under twenty-one years of age and female employees with weekly wage rates less than \$25. The normal number of working hours, excluding overtime, is the base for calculating weekly wage rates. In August, 1942 the bonus was ordered not to exceed \$4.25 or seventeen per cent of the weekly wage rate. The adjusted index on July 2, 1942 was 117. An employer may be exempted from paying all or any part of the bonus if the Board finds he is financially unable to do so. Wage rates adopted under a collective agreement that are comparable to rates paid similar employees outside Canada may be increased according to any increase granted for comparable employment outside Canada. In this case, affected employees are not paid the cost-of-living bonus. Provisions of collective agreements that are inconsistent with the terms of the present order must be brought in line with it. Finally, pro-

vision of the order supersede any inconsistent provisions of any Dominion or provincial law, but do not deny to employees any benefits to which they were entitled on November 15, 1941.—*Ray Mullins.*

31. Wilson, Theodore F. and Faulstich, Albert J. **If we could remake the classification system.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (3) November, 1942: 10-12. —If the authors could remake the federal position classification system, they would, in considering both its bad and its good points, agree that the general basic scheme of the existing plan is particularly fitted for the vast numbers and multifarious kinds of positions in the federal jurisdictional scope. However, they would redesign some of its features. The five existing services (Professional and Scientific, Subprofessional; Clerical, Administrative, and Fiscal; Crafts, Protective and Custodial; and Clerical-Mechanical) would be increased to nine: Professional and Scientific; Subprofessional; Clerical; Administrative; Trades and Crafts; Protective and Custodial; Inspectional and Investigative; Educational; and Clerical-Mechanical. Moreover, the top four levels of the present Professional and Scientific, and the Clerical, Administrative, and Fiscal services, would under the proposed system be redesigned into six levels, adding two additional grades. The coverage of the proposed system would include all positions, both departmental and field, except positions having employment or pay conditions justifying different treatment. Responsibility for administration of the system would be assigned to a central classification agency. Allocations, however, would be speeded up by requiring the central agency to act within 10 days and by allowing the agencies in time of emergency to make temporary allocations subject to review. Allocation in the field service would be made administratively by the agencies, in conformity with standards issued by the central agency and be subject to its periodic audits and surveys. The central agency would develop and promulgate adequate class specifications and would periodically publicize its actions with respect to allocations of common interest. Changed pay policies would include the fixing of pay scales by the central classification agency subject to approval by the President and the adjustment of pay scales to meet changing economic and employment conditions. The classification system could be remade by these proposals. However, no regulation or procedure could in itself change the human factor, the attitudes and points of view of persons concerned, although some improvement might be obtained through stimulation of a more cooperative state of mind by constant reference to the fact that they all work for the same employer and that the common objective is the maximum of efficient service with the minimum of expense consistent with good employment conditions.—*William A. Grelle.*

32. Young, Edgar B. **If I could remake the classification system.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (2) October, 1942: 10-12.—The systems of position classification and salary administration are inextricably intertwined, so that any consideration of classification reform must deal also with the pay system, in which certain changes may be made only by legislation. A more flexible method of establishing pay levels should supplant the present practice of employing excuses and subterfuges to obtain classification grades which carry pay rates realistically in keeping with current labor market conditions. For certain occupations the federal government already uses the wage-board system, but it is doubtful whether congressional approval would ever be given to the method whereby administrative officers would set salaries in accordance with general legislative policies and have authority to change them to meet changing labor market conditions. However, it might be possible to give the Civil Service Commission power to recruit new personnel at any one of the salary steps within a grade, provided that all incumbents in the same class had their salaries raised to the recruiting minimum. In addition, a greater number of classifications and salary levels should be created, especially for higher administrative and technical positions. The recruiting difficulties and waste resulting from forcing positions into the present levels of \$5600, \$6500, and \$8000 would have been alleviated if Congress had adopted the recommendations of the Civil Service Committee of the House of Representatives to provide five levels with entrance salaries of \$5400, \$6200, \$7000, \$8000, and \$9000. It is hoped that two procedural improvements, which have already been officially adopted, will be extended: the use of "characteristic position descriptions" and the establishment of operating relationships between the Civil Service Commission and other agencies to avoid duplicate job investigations. Changes in attitude, both on the part of persons engaged in classification and of administrators, are also needed. Both groups should recognize the importance of the classification plan as an administrative tool. There should be a presumption in all classification dealings that the administrative official is just as much interested as the classification man in economical administration, in fair levels of pay, in proper relationships between jobs, and in the maintenance of standards. Conversely, the classification man should have a realistic understanding of practical administrative problems. Such mutual confidence and cooperation can be attained only if administrative officers make an effort to understand the legal and technical framework of the classification system, and if classification technicians divest their work of its mysticism and employ language which can be understood by administrative officials and by the employees whose jobs are involved.
—Edith K. Mosher.

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

33. Bloom, Benjamin S., and Lubin, Ardie. **Use of the test scoring machine and the graphic item counter for statistical work.** *Psychometrika* 7 (4) December, 1942: 233-41.—A recently developed addition to the Test Scoring Machine of the International Business Machines Corporation is the Graphic Item Counter. This attachment prints a graphic record of responses to a test as marked on an answer sheet. These graphs furnish the data necessary for item analysis, questionnaire analysis, and other requirements of response counting where original records may take the form of marks in particular positions on a machine-scored answer sheet. The counter has 90 counting positions and is equipped with a plugboard which has one plugging position for each of the 750 responses on the standard answer sheet or record form. It also has one plugging position for each of the 90 counting positions. Any response position may be connected to any counter by means of a plugwire. To analyze the marks on a set of answer sheets, the desired response positions are wired to the desired counters by means of the plugboard arrangement. The answer sheets are then passed through the machine, and the appropriate counter will register once for each mark in the proper position. When the process is completed, a graphic item counter record sheet is inserted into the machine. The carriage then automatically runs the sheet through the machine and prints on it a bar graph of the item count projected vertically so that the top mark in each column represents, by its position, the number counted for that item. The machine is capable of extremely rapid counting. This device may also be used for coding, such as a person's color, age, education, etc.; for adding, subtracting, or multiplying such quantities as the number of marks in any given number of columns; and for the gathering of tetrachoric and product-moment correlations.—Irving Gold.

34. Graves, W. Brooke, and Herring, James M. **Recruiting administrative personnel in the field.** *Public Administration Review* 2 (4) Autumn, 1942: 302-11.—In the need for increased governmental personnel during the depression many of the emergency acts excepted positions from the operation of the civil service law. However, at the beginning of the defense program, both Congress and the administration seemed willing to let the United States Civil Service Commission fill the required positions. To meet this situation the Commission reorganized its procedures and expanded its personnel. The concern of this paper is with the measures which applied to the field force of the Commission. The regional offices had formerly been composed of six sections: administrative; investigations; application and examining; certification and appointment;

mails and files; and information. When the United States entered the war a new recruiting section was established which is at present the most important division of the regional office. To bring about a greater efficiency within the recruiting section itself, the work-load was divided both geographically and functionally. Positions to be filled were divided roughly into two groups. Those in Grades CAF-7 or higher, salary \$2600 per annum and above, were handled in a special recruiting unit staffed by recruiting specialists. Other positions not filled by certification from rosters established by assembled examinations were handled by the larger general recruiting unit. It was also found necessary to assign representatives to designated points throughout the region, for the post offices, long used as centers of information for civil service examinations, were no longer adequate. Functionally, some representatives were assigned to recruiting for particular types of positions and others were assigned to recruit for particular war agencies. Certain representatives served in a liaison capacity between the Commission and other establishments in the area. Early in 1942 the Commission authorized the appointment in each regional office of specialists assigned to the work of finding high-grade executive, administrative, and technical personnel. The work of these recruiting specialists consists primarily in contacting sources of employee supply and in interviewing prospective personnel. Although most contacts are the result of a specific recruiting request, attempts are also made whenever possible to broaden the contacts of the regional office by securing the cooperation of groups, thereby laying the groundwork for future recruitment activities. Several methods of recruiting have been evolved to supplement the normal procedure when such a procedure is no longer adequate. Among these are: (1) direct recruiting, whereby the Commission is authorized by an agency to recruit and place certain classes of employees without review by the agency involved; (2) positive recruiting, whereby the Commission attempts to secure applications from qualified individuals to fill a specific vacancy in a particular agency which cannot be filled from the files of the examination division; (3) joint recruiting, whereby the Commission and the agency needing personnel act together in the recruitment and selection operations; (4) advance recruiting, whereby the Commission attempts to obtain qualified applicants to fill anticipated vacancies; and (5) use of recruiting circulars, a variation of the advance recruiting technique, whereby contacts are made through the distribution of printed material. Regardless of the particular type of recruiting employed there are several common problems. These include the selective service classification of prospective employees, the level and relationship to the war of present employment, either federal or private, and the fact

that, in the case of technical personnel, both the federal government and private industry are making the same recruiting demands. Procedural problems include the handling of large numbers of applications, many of them duplicates; the problem of repeated interviews of an applicant who is being considered for employment by several agencies; and administrative problems under the War Service Regulations. Solutions to these problems are in the process of being evolved.—*Kenneth E. Dougan.*

35. Harvey, Verne, K., and Luongo, E. Parker. **The physically handicapped in industrial establishments of the government.** *The Journal of the American Medical Association* 121 (2) January 9, 1943: 100-06.—The medical division of the United States Civil Service Commission, under the necessity of compensating for wartime manpower shortages, conducted extensive surveys which show that thousands of jobs in industrial establishments of the government, such as arsenals and navy yards, can be filled by judicious placement of physically handicapped persons. This information has been coded for incorporation in a loose-leaf manual which is available to all persons engaged in placement, training, and recruiting activities for the federal service. Depending on the duration of the war and the resulting shortages in the labor supply, additional positions may have to be found for the handicapped; these adjustments will be reflected in the manual, which will be modified accordingly. In the view of the Commission, the only justifiable restrictions placed on employment of the handicapped will be on a functional, environmental, or industrial risk basis. However, because of the wide variants in environmental working conditions and in functional factors of the same job in different localities, no attempt is made to lay down definite over-all rules or established standards for placement, and individual consideration is recommended for each case. This program for the employment of the handicapped will serve the dual purpose of promoting the war effort by utilizing the qualified physically handicapped where they are needed, and also, will give the Commission valuable experience which can be applied after the war in rendering useful the disabled veterans and those incapacitated as a result of industrial accidents. (Tables are included which list positions in various industrial establishments of the government offering placement potentialities for the physically handicapped.)—*Rita Davidson.*

36. Jurgensen, Clifford E. **A test for selecting and training industrial typists.** *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 2 (4) October, 1942: 409-25.—After other tests had been found valueless in predicting typing success in the Kimberly-Clark Corporation, the Typing Ability Analysis was developed

to improve the weighting of some of the non-mechanical factors important in industrial typing. Job analyses aided the selection of twenty samples of kinds of typing, which were given to fifteen successful typists and fifteen novices. A repetition of this test of discriminating power left a test of five work samples, including a practice sample. Errors were graded into three classes of seriousness and weighted through application of the Wherry-Doolittle test selection technique. Error scores were converted to be of equal weight with time scores, when combined. The four parts of the test proper include a section of typed draft marked for correction, a section of tabulation, one of a longhand letter, and one requiring alphabetizing and tabulating authors and books. The test is of a work-limit type and permits close analysis of individual performance. Though the mean time score for individual applicants, 61 minutes, is rather long, this test is practically self-administering and has the advantage of a practical appearance. Norms for three different weightings of speed and accuracy, to conform to requirements for different jobs, have been determined for both industrial and educational use. Correlations between speed and accuracy are all low. A check of validity on two groups of typists ($N=67$) yielded a coefficient of .957. A test-retest check of reliability of all scores on sixty-three typing students yielded coefficients which, when corrected, all exceeded .848. The Typing Ability Analysis is useful for employment selection, analysis of training, upgrading of employees, and vocational guidance.—John A. Ohlson.

37. Ligon, Ernest M. **The administration of group tests.** *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 2 (4) October, 1942: 387-99.—More than a verbatim reading of test instructions is required for effective, standardized group testing. Significant group test scores require that the subjects do their best over the entire allotted time. Means of controlling sources of error, such as misunderstood instructions, carelessness, low motivation, confusion, dishonesty, and distractions have been gathered from test manuals and practical experience. Instructions should be phrased in language appropriate to the group to be tested and should be practiced for correct emphasis and speed. It may help subjects to read printed directions as the examiner reads them aloud and to see graphic illustrations of instructions. Errors due to carelessness may be reduced by having subjects who finish before time check their work, particularly for completeness. Subjects should be told whether or not to guess, depending on the purpose of the test. An announcement of the nature of mental tests may prevent undue feelings of inadequacy from the difficult questions. Boredom may be forestalled by an alert manner on the examiner's part and by the inclusion of interest

stimuli. Dishonesty in the examination can be controlled by vigilant proctoring. Honor systems should never be used in group testing. The subjects should be kept informed of the amount of time remaining for the test. The examiner needs alertness and leadership to maintain good morale and order, particularly in younger groups.—John A. Ohlson.

38. Searle, Lloyd V. **Scoring formulae for a modified type of multiple-choice question.** *The Journal of Applied Psychology* 26 (5) October, 1942: 702-10. —The report analyzes the properties, with respect to scoring and administration, of a modified form of multiple-choice question, differing from the conventional type primarily in that the number of correct alternatives is made variable in successive questions, and examinees are not told how many are correct in each. This form has the advantages of allowing greater freedom in the selection of plausible alternatives and of being easily adaptable to various kinds of subject material. Further, each single alternative can be made a differentiating unit in test scoring, permitting a greater range of scores than is possible for a conventional multiple-choice test of similar length. Due to the nature of the questions, answers are right both when correct alternatives are marked, (R), and incorrect alternatives are left unmarked, (R^1); answers are wrong both when incorrect alternatives are marked, (W), and correct alternatives are left unmarked, (W^1). Although the score $R+R^1$, the total number of correct responses, is not obtainable directly when answer sheets are machine scored, the value may be obtained indirectly by adjusting the machine to register $R-W$, for it may be shown that $R+R^1$ is equal to $R-W+I$, where "I" represents the number of incorrect alternatives in the key. Since "I" is a constant for any test, scores obtained by the simple formula $R-W$ correlate perfectly with $R+R^1$ scores. If examinees are cautioned to consider each alternative independently and to make their responses consistent with "best guesses" in cases of uncertainty, a correction for the effects of guessing is unnecessary, since scores obtained by the use of a formula for estimating "true" scores under these conditions would correlate perfectly with scores obtained by the proposed formula. Moreover, instructions not to guess would almost certainly lower the validity of the obtained scores. Using the form of question described and the principles of scoring and instruction outlined, it is also possible to adapt true-false items to the multiple-choice plan. (Article contains several examples of questions of the modified multiple-choice type.)—Stanley S. Berg.

39. Travers, R. M. W. **A note on the value of customary measures of item validity.** *The Journal of Applied Psychology* 26 (5) October, 1942: 625-32. —A common practice in the preparation of infor-

mation tests is to build them from an item file wherein is shown a validity coefficient and a difficulty coefficient for each item. The underlying theory is that an item showing consistently low validity on repeated administrations should either be discarded or changed. This use of the validity coefficient is proper only if two assumptions are justified: that validity coefficients remain fairly consistent when the items are used on different occasions; and that validity coefficients calculated in this way are actual measures of true validity. The usual procedure recommended is to calculate the validity coefficient from the extremes of the total distribution of test scores, commonly the highest and lowest twenty-five percentiles. This method was used in the present study of the examinations in the course in general psychology at Ohio State University. The course, which is offered each quarter, is rarely taken by less than 600 students. All of the students receive the same mid-term and final examinations and use the same text books. However, the actual teaching is done by individual instructors to groups of not more than thirty students. The several groups vary considerably in average ability, interest, and background, as indicated by the fact that some groups achieve considerably higher average scores. This variation does not appear to have been influenced by the particular instructor. The mid-term examination usually consists of about 100 items; the final examination of about 200. Approximately half the items are of a true-false type, the remainder being multiple choice items with four or more choices. Since the spring of 1941 a file of items has been compiled and validity coefficients computed on the basis described. The intra-class correlation between the validity coefficients of the fifty multiple choice items in the file which had been used five or more times prior to the introduction of the systematic filing system was found to be .21, suggesting that such coefficients are practically valueless for the purpose of choosing between these items. Further, this group of items had been selected on numerous occasions as being good ones. This intra-class correlation raises the question of whether the labor of calculating such item validity is worthwhile. Similar results were obtained on an examination of 78 true-false items which had been used five times or more, the intra-class correlation being .27. In the case of neither the multiple choice nor the true-false items was the low correlation a result of the lack of variability of the coefficients. In a situation such as that described, a fairly common one in the educational field, it is probable that item validity coefficients are likely to vary to a large degree between administrations of the item because of numerous factors in the situation. These are: (1) the various groups on which the item validity score were determined varied in intelligence, and not all instructors gave the same

emphasis to each point; (2) the curriculum is being constantly modified from quarter to quarter, while at the same time the instructors are encouraged to try new approaches and new materials; (3) the labor-saving device of computing the validity coefficients on the basis of the upper and lower 25 per cent groups results in relatively high errors of estimate unless the calculation from which they are derived includes a very large number of cases; and (4) the general evidence from other researches, as well as the present study, indicates that the usual measures of validity of information test items vary in their reliability and usefulness according to the situation, and that they are probably less valuable in many situations than they are usually considered to be.—*Kenneth E. Dougan.*

PLACEMENT; SERVICE STANDARDS AND EVALUATION

40. Board, Samuel S. *The placement officer in war time. Personnel Administration* 5 (3) November, 1942: 7-9.—The placement officers who are operating today in the war agencies have as their principal activity the function of preliminary selection by means of interviewing or reviewing the paper records of applicants referred by the Civil Service Commission or by the operating officers. Often this has been at the neglect of other placement activities which have previously been given as much attention, if not more; and some of these other normal placement activities are important in meeting current exigencies. One of these is careful initial placement on the basis of the employee's individual capacities, interests, and background. Another is an entrance interview which will give employees the bare fundamentals of working under government policies and procedures. Such interviews should be methodically followed up during the probationary period. Failures during this period which are caused by personality factors or by wrong work assignments may often be corrected by transfer to other positions. This assumes a transfer procedure which provides an adequate means of announcing vacancies and of identifying employees having the desirable qualifications. The same system may be used to identify applicants for promotion; but sound promotion policy may go beyond this to provide training for employees who are good promotional prospects. Even demotions, under rapid reorganizational changes, may be used to adjust assignments as jobs which were once relatively unimportant suddenly become points of intense activity and pressure. In spite of such efforts, terminations will occur and may be preceded by exit interviews. Good will may be established by helping the employee to find opportunity elsewhere. Some separations may be prevented by a tactful discussion of reasons for leaving and sore spots in the organization may thereby be discovered. Such comprehen-

sive placement activities will undoubtedly uncover personal and social problems of employees which very likely should be referred to employee counselors. Management problems may likewise be tactfully called to the attention of responsible officials. As for the qualifications of a placement officer, he should have maturity, a sincere interest in and ability to deal with people, the ability to analyze situations, an understanding of the principles of organization and, whenever it is possible, a knowledge of governmental personnel procedures. A knowledge of the agency's program and organizational structure are also important but may be learned on the job.—*William A. Grelle.*

41. Cooke, Morris L. **Non-financial incentives in war-time Washington.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (2) October, 1942: 9-6.—While the competent leader-administrator should not minimize the importance of adequate monetary compensation as an incentive to sustained employee service, he should also be concerned in promoting and enlisting the internal motives of his employees. This is a day-to-day process, and is most effectively done in a group which feels that its work is necessary and whose members share the same motivations. The average employee is inspired by action and relies on leaders who make quick decisions, even though such decisions may sometimes involve elements of error. Under modern democratic organization, authority should automatically flow up from those who command the local facts quite as much as down from those who, because of position, are compelled to make final and inclusive decisions. When everyone down the line has done his part, the character of the executive decision is foreordained. Unless special provision is made, however, very little information goes to the top as to how the bottom or intermediate grades feel, what makes them discontented or lacking in enthusiasm. One successful method by which executives have obtained such information is the mutual rating scheme described in an early bulletin of the Taylor Society. In most of the wartime activities there is no necessity for the military type of discipline, a technique under which orders and information flow in one direction only. Since many of the war agencies have been recently organized, routines are not fully established and it is difficult to keep everyone busy all the time. Furthermore, a large majority of the employees are new to the Washington environment and lack the stabilizing influences that come with any long-continued residence. The difficult housing and living conditions make good employer-employee relations all the more important. Every administrator should set aside a definite portion of his time for the consideration of personnel problems. When groups are brought together to discuss common problems, all interested persons should be included and the meet-

ing should afford an opportunity for a two-way passage of all pertinent facts. Someone should be designated to prepare a report of what was decided. It is occasionally good practice to get the group together on matters not too directly connected with the day's work. The author has found it helpful to set aside an evening a month to discuss personal problems with employees. Regardless of the size of the organization for which they are responsible, administrators need to concentrate on making a thoroughly efficient unit capable of being articulated to a larger whole. Ingenuity is needed to turn certain situations, which might otherwise become demoralizing, into constructive channels. For instance, during within-hours spare time employees might go to designated areas to enjoy and profit by their enforced leisure through study, reading, and recreation, rather than invite the stigma that is attached to anyone who puts on a show of being busy when he is not—*Edith K. Mosher.*

42. Tiffin, Joseph, and Musser, Wayne. **Weighting merit rating items.** *The Journal of Applied Psychology* 26 (5) October, 1942: 575-83.—It is axiomatic that raw scores which are combined to yield a composite weight themselves automatically in proportion to their respective variabilities. If each trait in a merit rating scale is to have equal weight in determining total scores, the variability of the ratings on each of the traits must be equal. A technique for achieving this effect is the conversion of ratings into deviations from the mean in terms of standard deviation units (*z-scores*) before combining them, since the standard deviations of all sets of *z-scores* are equal (1.00). If it is intended that one trait be given greater weight than any other, the *z-scores* for that trait may simply be multiplied by the desired weight. In a study of the application of a merit rating scale to 1800 employees of a steel mill, it was seen that the 12 traits of the scale used did not have equal weight in determining total scores, as intended, but that due to differences in variability the effective relative weights varied from 1.00 to 1.40. For one of the five occupational groups for which the data were further analyzed, the effective relative weights varied from 1.00 to 2.20. Further, "safety" scores had the lowest variability for all but one occupational group, and thus was automatically given least weight, in spite of the importance of the trait to such groups as machinists and laborers. For three of the groups, "health" was automatically given the heaviest weight, although it would seem that this factor should be given little weight when rated by foremen. These results emphasize the desirability of transforming merit ratings to *z-scores* before combining them, in order to insure the elimination of chance and unknown weights attaching themselves to the merit rating items.—*Stanley S. Berg.*

WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

43. Roberts, Kingsley. **The next job for management: smashing the health bottleneck.** *Personnel Administration* 5 (2) October, 1942: 13-19.—There are two points from which industry can attack the health bottleneck: by expanding industrial health services to include various elements of preventive medical practice, and by participating in a plan to assure adequate medical care to its employees for ordinary illness arising outside of work hours. The first step is a general educational campaign to teach the employee the vital importance of proper nutrition. The next step is to discover the main causes of illness. The apparently obvious solution of referring preventive medicine work to the family physician is no solution at all, realistically. Industry must take the leadership in making needed care available to employees at a rate which is within reach of their income. The solution lies in the selection of doctors, dentists, and hospitals to be especially organized to do the work. The most satisfactory solution to the problem of payment is through some form of pre-payment out of income. The process of rehabilitation may include physical therapy, retraining, or both, but careful placement work is indispensable for permanent results. Successful placement of handicapped persons depends on a careful survey of the applicant's functional capacity and on a thorough job analysis to fit the worker and the job together. This program is designed to meet the urgent but generally unrecognized problem of salvaging every production hour which is now being wasted. It is a program which is practical, which employs existing agencies and personnel, and does not consume the valuable time which it is designed to save. Its elements have been tested with successful results individually. Finally, it pays dividends, in terms of money actually saved as well as increasing the speed and the volume of output.—*Robert C. Sampson.*

44. Unsigned. **Company policies on military and civilian service of employees.** *Monthly Labor Review* 55 (3) September, 1942: 474-77.—The Selective Service Act of September, 1940, contained provisions resulting in the adoption by many companies of policies designed to protect the rights and privileges of their employees while they are in the armed services. The National Industrial Conference Board in a recent survey analyzed the current policies of 232 companies. Three-fourths of the plans studied now apply to the employees who volunteer as well as those drafted and some of them include the Merchant Marine service. Half the companies make no distinction between regular and temporary employees, while others limit the job-protection privileges to permanent employees or to those with a specified minimum of service. Continuous service

credit for the duration is the general rule but in some cases seniority is retained as of the date the employee left the company. It is a general practice to give inducted employees any vacation pay due them and many companies give extra compensation which varies from pay for one week up to three months or in some cases the difference between company and army pay. Two trends noted in the survey are the increase in the number of firms granting extra compensation and the decrease in the individual amounts. Most companies were forced to discontinue group insurance on men in the service although some continue it for a short time to allow employees to apply for government insurance. Under the contributory pension plans policies vary, but in no case does the employee lose his membership unless he elects to withdraw his contributions. Military service usually does not interrupt the service record in non-contributory pension plans. Some companies compensate their employees for absences while serving in the state or home guards. Company policies regarding payment of employees engaged in air-raid protection service will be affected by the application of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Some companies now pay employees for time lost through practice drills; others report they intend to do so in the event of actual air-raids.—*Ray Mullins.*

SEPARATION: RETIREMENT

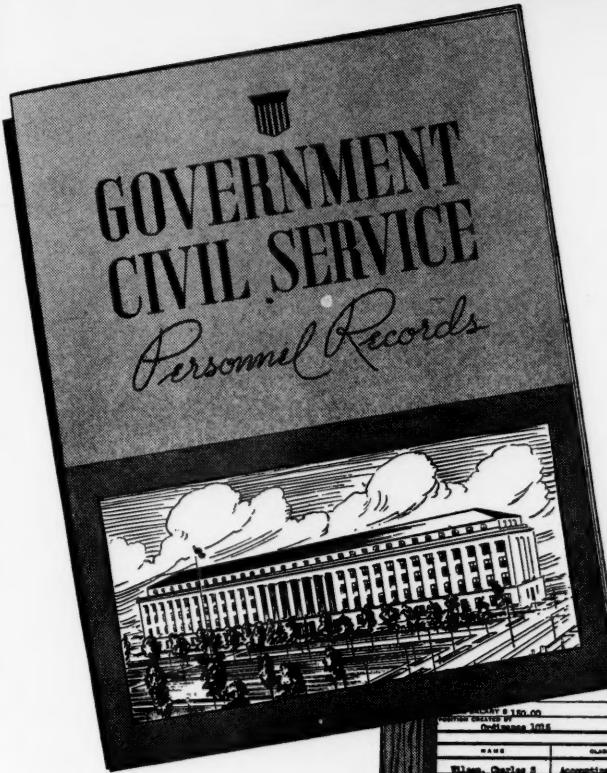
45. Pizer, Marguerite. **The jumble of public retirement systems.** *The George Washington Law Review* 11 (1) December, 1942: 57-71.—The federal government is operating two types of retirement plans—contributory and noncontributory. Contributory plans include seven systems operated for the benefit of employees of the federal government only, and two systems operated for employees in private industry. Noncontributory plans include those operated for the benefit of members of the armed forces, including commissioned officers of the Public Health Service and the Coast and Geodetic Survey, federal judges, members of the Hawaiian judiciary, and members of the Lighthouse Service. Contributory and noncontributory systems are similar in intent and design, i.e., to eliminate from the public service those employees who can no longer perform efficiently either because of age or disability; to increase the morale of the service; and to attract higher grade personnel. Although improvement of the efficiency of the service is, in the final analysis, the major objective of the noncontributory systems, their establishment has been approached from a different angle. The retired pay of members of the armed forces is largely a result of a combination of high patriotic fervor and the necessity for making a military career attractive to competent men, while the gratuitous pensions for members of the judiciary are directed toward securing the highest calibre of judicial minds and providing freedom from partisanship and poli-

tical bias. Underlying the enactment of legislation providing old-age insurance for the industrial and commercial workers is the idea that such a plan will aid in protecting the individual citizen and his family, and through him, society, against certain economic hazards for which he himself is unable to provide. The Civil Service Retirement System is the largest of the federal contributory systems, covering approximately 97 per cent of the federal employees who are protected by contributory systems. The rate of employee contributions under this system is 5 per cent and the plan is administered by the United States Civil Service Commission, which also administers the Canal Zone and the Alaska Railroad systems. Five other systems, with employees aggregating 21,600, are administered by individual agencies. These are the Foreign Service, Federal Reserve Bank, civilian staff of the Naval Academy, Examining Division of the Comptroller of Currency, and the Tennessee Valley Authority. The rates of employee contributions vary from the flat rate of 5 per cent to varying rates according to sex and age upon entering the service. The minimum retirement age likewise varies from service to service. All the contributory services contain some sort of provisions for disability benefits and survivors' benefits. The noncontributory systems, exclusive of those pertaining to judicial officers, are almost identical. Eligibility for retirement is related to length of service, with age as a secondary factor; and the amount of retirement pay is determined by the pay of the rank at retirement. Provisions for retired pay to members of the judiciary are the most liberal of all the federal plans, retirement with full pay being possible after the officer reaches the age of 70, providing he has served 10 years. The second category of federally administered retirement plans includes two systems, the old-age and survivors insurance system, administered by the Social Security Board, and the system for railroad employees, ad-

ministered by the Railroad Retirement Board. In addition to the federally operated retirement plans, approximately 3,000 state and local governments have established public employee retirement systems. These 3,000 systems include 16 state-wide plans for all general employees, state-wide systems for special groups, municipal systems covering all or some of their employees, and county and township systems of similar types. The lack of uniformity as to form, coverage, and benefits among the local systems is remarkable. Generally the plans for special groups such as firemen, policemen, and teachers provide for more liberal superannuation benefits than the old-age and survivors insurance system, but do not provide the range of survivors benefits. With the exception of these preferred groups, the vast majority of state and local governments make no provision for the retirement of their employees. The most glaring limitation of existing systems is the exclusion from any continuing protection whatsoever of large segments of the population; namely agriculture workers, domestic workers, employees of non-profit organizations, many state and local employees, and the self-employed. The second limitation of the present situation is the lack of continuity of protection. The third major limitation of the present plan of independent public systems for special groups is the lack of provision against overlapping and duplication of benefits. If the various political factors and pressure groups were ignored, the solution to these problems is clear. The old-age and survivors insurance system could be expanded into a truly nationwide system to include every employed individual, including members of existing public retirement systems. The gaps in coverage would be limited, continuity of coverage would be achieved, and duplication of benefits would be eliminated. Everyone would be assured of minimum protection against the economic hazards of old age—*G. M. Morris.*

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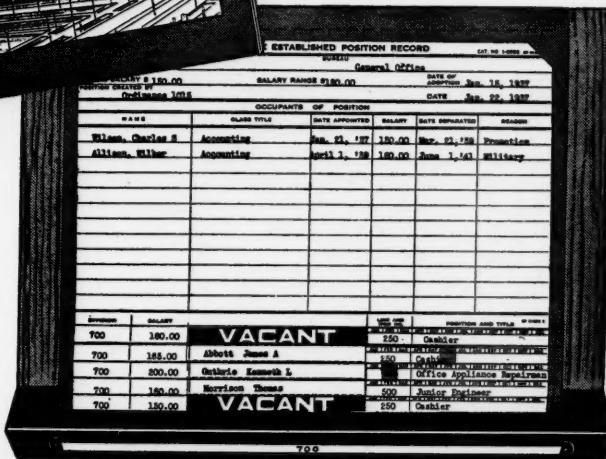


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